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ABSTRACT

This document reviews progress in the nine high-populations countries towards the goal of Education for All (EFA). The nine countries are Bangladesh, Brazil, China, Egypt, India, Indonesia, Mexico, Nigeria, and Pakistan. Since the Thailand conference in 1990, most countries have shown improvement with primary education increasing by over 40 million students and attempts to improve educational quality. The book contains the following chapters: (1) "EFA: The Turning Point"; (2) "Education and Demography: A Critical Interaction"; (3) "EFA: The Process"; (4) "The Components of EFA: An Overview"; (5) "Towards Universal Primary Education"; (6) "Programmes for Adolescents and Adults"; (7) "Early Childhood Care and Education"; and (8) "Summing Up." A country by country analysis of educational progress is included. (EH)

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ED 388 546

education for all SUMMIT

NINE HIGH POPULATION COUNTRIES

BANGLADESH
BRASIL
CHINA
EGYPT
INDIA
INDONESIA
MEXICO
NIGERIA
PAKISTAN

13-16 DECEMBER
1993 NEW DELHI
INDIA

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IN THE NINE HIGH-POPULATION COUNTRIES

analysis and synthesis

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Education for All

in the Nine
High-Population
Countries

Discussion DRAFT

analysis
and
synthesis

Executive Summary

This document, based mainly on national reports and statistical questionnaires, reviews progress in the nine high-population countries towards the goal of Education for All (EFA). In section I, it is shown that there has been a considerable improvement in most countries since the convening of the **World Conference on Education for All** in Jomtien, Thailand, in March 1990. In fact, 1990 appears in retrospect to have been a turning point. Enrolment in primary education has increased by over 40 million students during the last three years. In addition, major efforts are underway in several countries to improve educational quality.

Population growth continues to retard progress in the achievement of EFA. Between 1980 and 1993, as noted in section II, the number of children of primary-school age in the nine countries increased by 56 million. Although enrolment of the school-age population grew even more rapidly, increasing by 86 million, this was insufficient to accommodate all children. Hence, there are still an estimated 42 million out-of-school children in the nine countries, a majority of them girls. Education, especially of women, has been repeatedly demonstrated to reduce fertility and child mortality rates. Several of the nine countries have either already made the 'demographic transition' from high to moderate or low birthrates, or are in the process of doing so. This, it is emphasized, is essential in improving the long-term education and development prospects of high-population countries.

A number of essential steps in the process of achieving EFA are discussed in section III in reference to the situation in the nine countries. It is noted that large and populous countries face challenges of both scale and diversity. Experience suggests that EFA is best handled by placing responsibility for programme implementation at the community or local level. Scale, however, not only imposes problems, but presents opportunities. Large countries are, for example, in a particularly privileged position to use and benefit from modern communication media. This possibility has been recognized and is being acted upon by most countries. It is shown that, since 1990, at least seven of the nine countries have significantly increased their spending on EFA. Governments have also endeavoured to build partnerships by inviting communities and non-governmental organizations, including religious institutions, to participate actively in the EFA movement. While, in most countries, the resources provided by international partners have been relatively modest in relationship to the overall national effort, they have played a catalytic role by supporting educational reform and programmes directed to the most disadvantaged parts of the population.

Section IV presents an overview of the components of the education system most critically involved in the pursuit of EFA: primary schooling, literacy and other programmes for adolescents and adults, and early childhood care and education (ECCE). These are not, it is insisted, isolated elements, but interacting parts of an overall system. Education takes place not in a vacuum, but

in society and culture and has to be understood, planned and analyzed within this context.

The situation concerning primary education, analyzed in section V, varies considerably from country to country. There are good prospects, if current efforts are sustained, that six of the nine countries could enroll over 90 per cent of primary school-age children before the end of the century. In the remaining three countries, this goal could be achieved in the first years of the 21st century. Several countries are seeking to increase capacity and to meet the special needs of out-of-school children through non-formal primary education programmes and by co-operating with religious authorities in the operation of schools in mosques, churches and temples. **Gender**, although but one of many sources of disparity, remains by far the greatest and most general. Enrolment of girls varies in the nine countries from a low of 34 per cent of total enrolment to a high of 49 per cent.

While experience suggests that perseverance and constancy of purpose are essential to achieving Universal Primary Education (UPE), there is also an urgent need for reforms and innovations. This is especially the case as concerns difficult-to-reach or difficult-to-serve children. Education for such children has to respond to their particular situations or problems. The education systems in many of the nine countries experience extremely high drop-out and repetition rates. Improvements in internal efficiency, through reduction of drop-out and repetition, would not only improve learning, but also enable existing institutions to serve millions of additional children. The quality and relevance of learning and the level of achievement are growing concerns to educators and parents in all countries. These concerns have engendered efforts to improve the learning process by re-training teachers, reforming curricula, making better provision for educational supplies, and scores of related measures. Following an overall analysis of the situation in the nine countries, major developments in each country are reviewed. Particular attention is given in these reviews to educational reforms and innovations.

Section VI examines programmes for adolescents and adults. It is noted that while **illiteracy** is receding slowly in most countries, the number of **literates** is growing rapidly, mainly as a result of the extension of primary education. In addition to illiterate adolescents and adults, programmes are increasingly serving the semi-literate and newly literate, many of whom are school drop-outs. There is also a growing demand for general and especially vocational education programmes. As rates of illiteracy are considerably higher among women than among men, programmes to serve women should be accorded priority. Following an overview of the situation, major trends and developments in each of the nine countries are reviewed.

Early childhood care and education, whether provided in the home, community or a school-based programme, is essential to the well-being and future educational success of the child.

Section VII emphasizes that the first two years of life are critical in the development of the brain and nervous system. If proper nutrition, health care and stimulation are not provided during this period, irreparable damage may result. The review of national experiences indicates a trend toward community-based programmes and a growing emphasis upon the education and training of parents, especially mothers, in ways of promoting the care and development of the young child. Pre-school programmes are also being expanded in most countries as a means for preparing disadvantaged children to succeed in school.

The conclusion, section VIII, recalls the origins of the EFA movement: the growing recognition, among policy-makers and the general public alike, that nothing is more important to the progress of individuals and societies than the development of human competence through education and training. This realization was the cause, not the consequence, of the convening of the World Conference on Education for All that gave birth to the EFA movement. Now, nearly four years on, the movement is well underway and its first fruits are full of promise.

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Table of Contents

		Page
I.	EFA: The Turning Point	1
II.	Education and Demography: A Critical Interaction	4
III.	EFA: The Process	8
IV.	The Components of EFA: An Overview	15
V.	Towards Universal Primary Education	17
	1. Identification and Analysis of Issues	17
	2. Action in Primary Education	30
	Bangladesh	30
	Brazil	32
	China	33
	Egypt	35
	India	36
	Indonesia	38
	Mexico	40
	Nigeria	42
	Pakistan	44
VI.	Programmes for Adolescents and Adults	48
	1. Identification and Analysis of Issues	48
	2. Summary of Action for Adolescents and Adults	52
VII.	Early Childhood Care and Education 60	
	1. Identification and Analysis of Issues	60
	2. Summary of Action for Early Childhood Care and Education	61
VIII.	Summing up	64

Annex

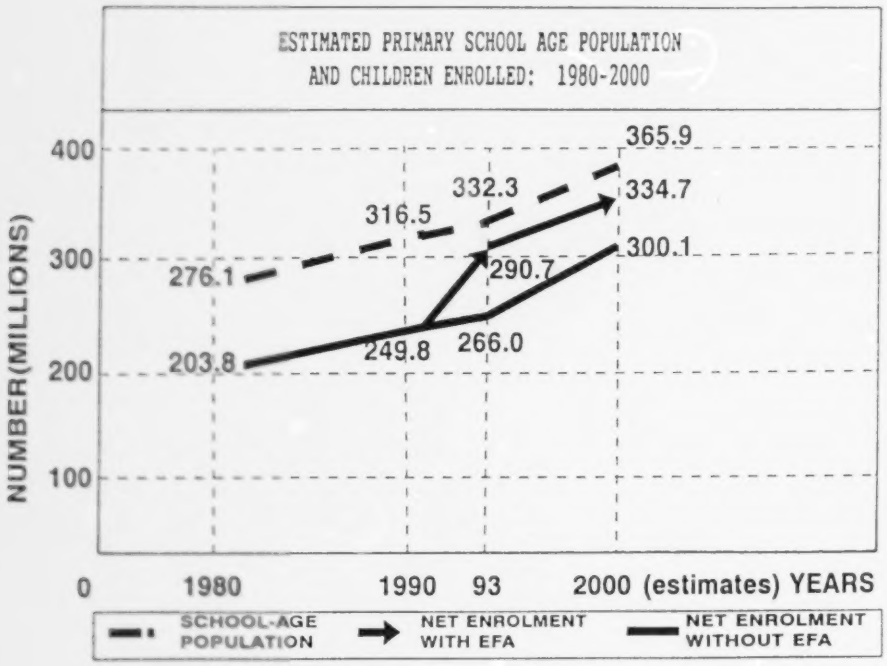
Figures and Tables

	Page		Page
Figure 1	1	Table 1	2
Figure 2	6	Table 2	4
Figure 3	12	Table 3	18
Figure 4	24	Table 4	19
Figure 5	26	Table 5	20
Figure 6	27	Table 6	21
Figure 7	48	Table 7	22
Figure 8	49	Table 8	51

I. EFA: The Turning Point

The significance of the **Education for All (EFA)** movement can be measured by the **difference** between **what would have been** and **what may be** in the year 2000. Figure 1 shows the total number of children of primary-school age in the nine high-population countries during the period 1970-2000, as well as the number of students of the same age-group actually enrolled in primary school throughout the period[1]. As can be observed, 1990 is a turning point. It is in this year that the line showing enrolment slopes steeply upward, indicating a sharp increase in the number of children enrolled and a corresponding decline in the number of out-of-school children.

Figure 1



Why 1990? This, it will be recalled, was both the United Nations International Literacy Year and, more especially, the year in which the World Conference on Education for All was held in Jomtien, Thailand. It was this Conference that launched the worldwide EFA movement. Most of the nine high-population countries arrived in Jomtien armed with national EFA plans. In the follow-up to the Conference, countries refined these plans and began to implement them. The fruits of these efforts are now

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[1] Statistics cited in this document are based upon national reports and questionnaires prepared for the Summit. They are not official UNESCO statistics and should **not** be cited as such. Where statistics from other sources are used, references are provided. Quotations are also from the national reports, unless other sources are indicated.

appearing. By the year 2000, **if efforts are sustained**, the impact of Jomtien will be clearly evident in all countries.

The country-by-country impact of the EFA movement, calculated on the basis of data provided by the nine countries, is shown in Table 1. In those countries that in 1990 already enrolled over 90 per cent of children in primary school - e.g. China, Indonesia and Mexico -, the impact of EFA on enrolment appears moderate, the emphasis in these countries being mainly on improving quality. Even as concerns enrolment, however, the progress is greater than apparent as special efforts and measures are required to enroll the final 5 to 10 per cent of difficult-to-reach or difficult-to-serve children. In those countries having large numbers of out-of-school children, EFA has already had a significant impact on expanding access and enrolment. In India, for example, EFA efforts since 1990 appear to have accounted for the enrolment of over 16 million additional children in primary schools and programmes providing non-formal primary education. In Bangladesh, Nigeria and Pakistan, EFA efforts, **if sustained**, will result in significant increases in enrolment by the end of the century. Millions of children, who would otherwise have been excluded from school, will be enrolled. Many of them will be the first members of their families to have ever received formal education.

Table 1

ENROLMENT OF SCHOOL AGE POPULATION IN THE NINE HIGH POPULATION COUNTRIES
(MILLIONS)

COUNTRY	1980	1990	1993		ESTIMATES 2000	
			WITHOUT EFA	WITH EFA	WITHOUT EFA	WITH EFA
Bangladesh	8.4	10.3	10.9	11.7	12.4	16.1
Brazil	21.9	22.4	22.5	24.6	25.0	28.7
China	72.3	88.7	96.5	97.5	114.7	115.5
Egypt	4.0	5.2	5.4	5.8	6.2	6.5
India	53.0	68.0	73.2	89.6	79.3	98.2
Indonesia	20.2	24.9	25.7	26.0	24.5	25.0
Mexico	10.1	12.2	12.3	12.8	13.2	13.8
Nigeria	9.2	11.2	12.3	15.2	17.3	19.2
Pakistan	4.7	6.9	7.2	7.5	7.5	11.7
TOTAL	203.8	249.8	266.0	290.7	300.1	334.7

Indeed, 1990 appears to have been a decisive turning point in all countries. In some, the success has been mainly in expanding enrolment and, in others, primarily in improving quality. But the war is far from being won. Enormous efforts

will be required to sustain and build upon the progress gained in the first years of the EFA movement. As Figure 1 shows, the slope is steep. If commitment lags or efforts fail, the momentum of the movement will be quickly lost and Jomtien could be remembered not as a singular success, but as a Sisyphean effort.

The Summit of the Nine High-Population Countries represents a unique and historic occasion to give fresh impetus to the EFA movement. Collectively, the nine nations participating in the Summit account for more than half the world's population and over 70 per cent of the world's illiterate adults. Most of them, while old societies, are 'new nations' that emerged from colonialism or domination in the middle of the present century. They possess substantial means and enormous potential. Certain of them are among the most scientifically and technologically advanced nations on earth. Several were the cradles of human civilization. All are leaders within their respective regions: countries whose role is recognized and whose example is often followed. All of these nations have long and proud traditions in education and well-trained and able professional educators in their ministries, institutes and universities.

In brief, the nations represented at the Summit have it within their power, by action and example, to transform the educational situation in the world. This, in essence, is the agenda of the meeting. It can be acted on in two ways. First, by the leaders and peoples of each nation re-dedicating themselves to the pursuit of Education for All as a basic human right and an essential condition for development. Secondly, by the promotion of co-operation in education among the nine countries and, indeed, among all nations. Education for All is a global challenge. All nations and all peoples have a stake in its success. Education is not only a social service, it is the fulfilment of the human vocation: a transformative and revolutionary act upon which all progress ultimately depends. Hence, in a fundamental sense, the purpose of the Summit is to help shape the world of tomorrow by creating, through education, the conditions for realizing the common hopes of humanity and for avoiding the fate which, unless we act, may be our shared tragedy.

II. Education and Demography: A Critical Interaction

The major brake on progress towards EFA is population growth. Table 2 shows the projected increase in the population of primary school-age children in the nine countries between 1980 and 2000: a total of 90 million children. If the primary school-age population had remained at the level reached in 1980 (i.e. 276 million) while school capacity continued to expand, reaching an estimated 291 million places in 1993, there would at present be a surplus of school places in most countries. This is not, of course, what has happened. During the past thirteen years (1980 to 1993), the school-age population in the nine countries has increased by more than 56 million. Thus, even though capacity (i.e. enrolment) grew by 87 million places during the same period, it was insufficient to accommodate all out-of-school children. Achieving universal enrolment, as the school-age population rapidly expands, might be likened to running up a down escalator in that it requires a considerable effort to simply stay where you are, and major exertions to advance.

Table 2

SCHOOL AGE POPULATION IN THE NINE HIGH POPULATION COUNTRIES
(MILLIONS)

COUNTRY	1980	1990	1993	Estimates 2000
Bangladesh	14.3	16.7	17.6	19.7
Brazil	24.0	26.8	28.0	29.9
China	75.2	90.9	98.9	117.1
Egypt	5.7	6.3	6.5	7.0
India	90.6	99.7	102.1	106.7
Indonesia	23.5	26.9	26.8	25.4
Mexico	12.0	12.9	13.0	14.0
Nigeria	17.3	18.6	20.1	22.2
Pakistan	13.5	17.7	19.3	23.9
TOTAL	276.1	316.5	332.3	365.9

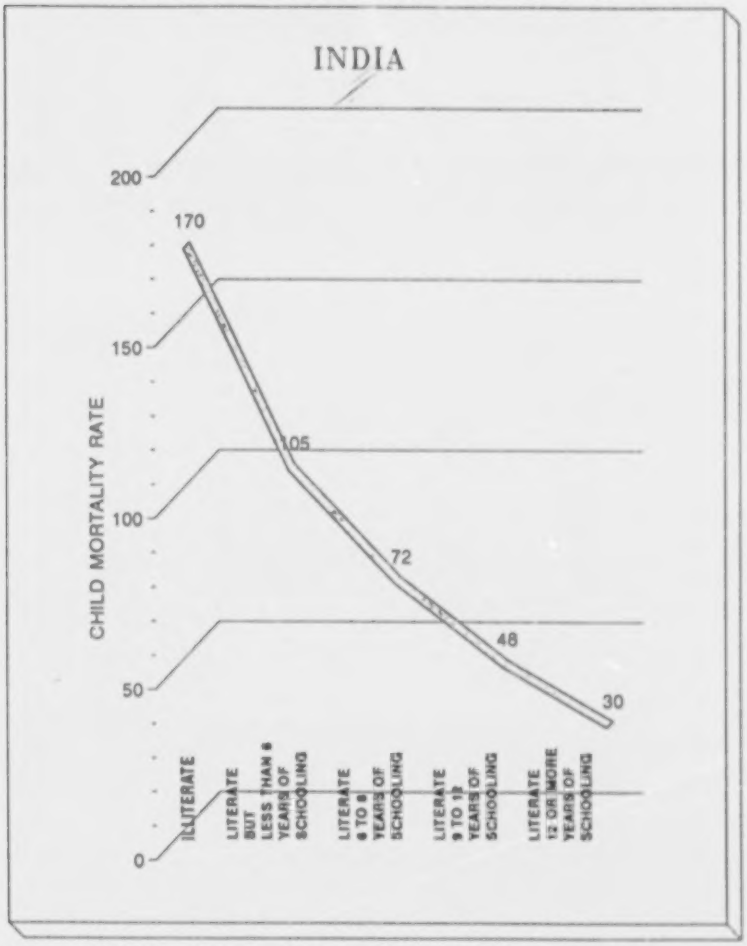
The impact of population growth upon school enrolment is, of course, only half of the story. It is the reciprocal relationship, that of education upon population growth, that is both more important and more interesting. The exact dynamics by which education influences population growth are in dispute among demographers and other specialists. The original 'demographic

transition' theory posited that the economic and social changes accompanying the industrial revolution resulted, within a generation or so, in lower birth rates. If true, this theory holds out little hope to countries that are already highly populated and have not as yet achieved industrialization or, indeed, even to those that have industrialized and have thereby entered the 30-year 'waiting period'. During those thirty years, a nation growing at a rate of over two per cent would see its population double. A more recent theory, known as the 'social justice theory', suggests that it is not so much the degree of technological change that matters, but the extent to which all levels of the population share in its benefits. To the extent that 'life-support systems', such as education, health, employment, pensions and legal protection, are available to all, expectations relevant to reproductive decisions are changed. No longer are large families, especially sons, seen as necessary to provide security in old age. The Indian state of Kerala is often cited in support of this theory. In this state, where literacy rates and life expectancy are high and infant mortality rates low, the birthrate declined sharply as economic and social progress advanced.

Whatever the precise dynamics, there is an abundance of empirical evidence showing that rising education levels - **especially among women** - coincide with declining fertility rates. As a whole or in particular areas, all of the nine countries have witnessed the impact of education upon fertility. In Brazil, for example, illiterate women have 6.5 children on average whereas women with a secondary education have 2.5 children. Improvement in rates of child survival has a powerful and logical impact on the number of births: as parents come to expect their children to survive into adulthood, they tend to prefer smaller families. Improved child survival, in turn, is closely related to the educational level of parents, especially mothers. Figure 2, derived from the Indian country report, shows the rate of child mortality for mothers with differing levels of education. What is of particular interest in this figure is that relatively modest levels of education result in very significant declines in child mortality. For example, literate mothers with less than six years of education have an average infant mortality rate of slightly over 100 whereas the children of illiterate mothers experience up to 170 fatalities per 1,000 live births. Education, thus, can be seen to work in ways that are both direct and indirect to reduce fertility rates and, over time, population. But the benefits of a mother's education go far beyond survival: her children are likely to be better cared for and nourished. Her children, especially her daughters, are also far more likely to receive an education themselves. Thus, in a very real sense, the cycle of illiteracy is broken and a cycle of education and progress begun.

Figure 2

CHILD MORTALITY RATE BY EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF MOTHER : 1981



Source : Adapted from Universal Primary Education of Rural Girls in India, NCERT, 1990.

The situation regarding population differs greatly from country to country[2]. Bangladesh is the world's most densely populated nation. Parts of Indonesia, including Java, also have population densities of over 800 inhabitants per square kilometer. In most of the nine countries, there are regions of both high and low population density. China and India are, of course, the most populated countries on earth and, together, account for more than a third of the world's population. The estimated rates of annual population growth also differ sharply among countries, ranging from 1.5 per cent in China to well over 3 per cent in Nigeria and Pakistan. Indeed, it is not so much the level of population as its relentless growth that deeply troubles thoughtful scholars and observers of the global

[2] Information on population is presented in annex.

situation. In 1950, for example, the world's population was 200 million less than the estimated population of the nine high-population countries **alone** in 1990. In the half- century from 1950 to 2000, the world's population is expected to more than double, growing from an estimated 2.5 thousand million in 1950 to a projected 6.3 thousand million in 2000. The figures give pause: 10,000 people are added to the world's population every hour, 250,000 every day and 100 million every year. One need not be an alarmist to observe that the finite space and resources of the planet cannot for long sustain the current rates of population growth.

The Summit is, of course, about EFA, not population; but, as already observed, there is a critical interaction between them. Population growth enormously complicates the achievement of Education for All. But education, once available, tends to reduce fertility rates and hence population growth. It is this relationship that makes it so crucial that EFA be achieved in the next decade in the nine high-population countries. If the countries cannot get over the 'demographic hump' early in the next century, population growth may prove inexorable. The consequences of such a development would be tragic. Education for All - a vision filled with hope for progress, justice and prosperity - could well begin to fade. To present the choice as 'now or never' may over-dramatize it, but not by much.

III. EFA: The Process

The process of transforming EFA from a vision to a reality is evidently complex and varies considerably from country to country and situation to situation. There are, nonetheless, certain essential steps that all countries must take in one way or another to advance toward EFA. There are, in addition, special problems and possibilities that confront the high-population countries.

Shaping the vision: Education for All is a societal objective. Its achievement requires that the political leadership, through a national dialogue, communicate to the people that EFA is of critical importance and requires a nation-wide effort. The terms in which the priority accorded to education is explained and justified will differ from society to society. In Egypt, for example, education is presented as a matter of national security: i.e. as an essential requirement for ensuring the future well-being of the nation. In China, education is advocated as a fundamental part of a revolutionary process aimed at building a socialist society within a strong and modern nation. What is common in both of these justifications, and in those of other countries as well, is that education is considered not merely as a social service, but as a vital and transformative process. It is the means for shaping the nation's future, for building a better and more bountiful tomorrow. It is this that confers upon it such critical importance and justifies its claim upon a significant and growing share of scarce resources.

This vision has, of course, to be articulated in precise terms and concrete measures: in policy objectives, laws, strategies, administrative directives, etc. This is the formal side of the process. As concerns EFA, this has been accomplished, to a considerable degree, in all nine countries, especially as concerns legal provisions. There are, to be sure, differences. In Egypt, primary education has been compulsory for 70 years. There has been and remains, however, a gap between the law and its enforcement. In Pakistan, compulsory education is applicable only in areas where schools are accessible. In Nigeria, not only is school compulsory, but there are legal constraints against removing a girl from school for purposes of marriage. In other cases, it is not educational law that needs to be enforced, but laws against child labour that keep children away from school. In sum, the right to education is well established in law. What is required are the means to ensure that all can enjoy the protection that the law provides.

Strategies concern not the 'what', but the 'how'. They must obviously be selected in the light of the country's circumstances and aspirations. An essential element in formulating a strategy is setting priorities. Achieving EFA is a complex and long-term undertaking. Not everything can be a priority at all times. Given the scarcity of resources, choices have to be made.

Bangladesh and Pakistan, for example, have decided to concentrate all available resources on the extension of primary education. In China, India, Indonesia and Mexico, while primary education receives by far the largest budgetary allocations, major programmes of literacy and adult education are also conducted. In Brazil and Egypt, increased attention is being given to programmes of early childhood education as a means of reaching disadvantaged children and ensuring greater equality of opportunity. All nine countries are seeking to achieve EFA, but each is in a unique situation and pursuing its objectives in the manner that it deems most appropriate and effective. There are many roads to EFA, even if they all pass through certain common way stations.

Policies and strategies are, of course, only the first steps in the enormous and subtle task of transforming a vision into a reality. Thereafter, a country needs to mobilize, to organize, to finance and to conduct its programmes. National actions in each of these areas are described in sections V, VI and VII of this document.

Coping with scale and diversity: The nine countries share the challenges of coping with scale and diversity. Their situations are by no means identical. Brazil and China, for example, extend over 8.5 million and 9.6 million square kilometers respectively whereas Bangladesh occupies less than 150,000 square kilometers. Their populations vary from approximately 55 million for Egypt to over 1,135 million for China. Yet, while the differences are enormous, all nine are large and populous countries where mobilization must be an essential part of administration and governance. In such large and populous nations, it is quite impossible for matters relating to the detailed operation of education to be handled centrally. To seek to do so would place the point of decision too far from the place of action. Time and energy would be consumed in communicating and co-ordinating rather than in acting.

How can the constraints of distance and scale be overcome? To begin with, five of the nine countries are federations in which education is a responsibility shared between the central government and its component states. In all countries, increasing efforts are being made to clarify the division of responsibilities and, to the extent possible, to decentralize operational authority to regional, district and local authorities. Mexico, for example, has recently completed an extensive reform of its education system, conferring operational responsibilities upon the states. The Chinese experience, and that of many other countries as well, would suggest that the implementation of programmes should be placed at or near the local level. Those implementing programmes should be doing so for people they know, not anonymous and faceless beings. Those participating in programmes, as learners or teachers, should be in direct contact with those in charge of them. Where, as is usually the case, resources must be mobilized locally, the

national reports suggest that this is much more easily done for 'our' school than for the school.

Nonetheless, national authorities have a key role to play. As suggested above, they have to articulate an appealing and compelling vision of EFA, within a wider framework of national development, that both conforms to and transcends local considerations. Vast and populous countries, in particular, need a compelling national vision to encourage and guide local initiatives. Hence, the choice is not between local action and national action. Both are required; each has a distinct part to play.

Harnessing the communications media: The modern communications media possess an enormous educational potential. As noted in the **Framework for Action to Meet Basic Learning Needs** adopted by the World Conference on Education for All, the world is experiencing both an explosive growth of information and knowledge and the development of new and immensely more powerful communication capacities[3]. The opportunity exists, as the **Framework** notes, *'to harness this force and use it positively, consciously, and with design, in order to contribute to meeting defined learning needs'*.

Large and populous countries are in a particularly privileged position to exploit these capabilities in the implementation of EFA policies. High investments in both hardware and software are fully justified as the unit cost of even expensive programmes can be modest if the audience is of sufficient size. In considering the use of media, it is helpful to distinguish between distance education in the usual sense of conventional educational programmes 'over the air' and the wider impact the mass media are having on society. The former is a growth point **within** education while the latter is having a growing influence **on** all forms of education by transforming the world in which learners live. The country reports emphasize the use of distance education, through both radio and television, in literacy programmes, teacher training and in the enrichment of primary education. It is evident that the countries recognize the potential of new technologies in overcoming the constraints imposed by distance and terrain and, in the case of Brazil and India, are even using space satellites to increase their reach. Even more conventional technologies, such as audio and visual cassettes, are finding constantly wider application. Chinese primary schools, for example, use audio cassettes in language labs and video cassettes in science courses. In short, education is, belatedly, entering the age of technology.

Enhancing the environment for learning: Perhaps the greatest influence of the mass media is in enhancing the learning environment. Relapse into illiteracy is the fate of many

[3] Indicators of the development of communication capacity are contained in annex.

learners, both children and adults, in areas where opportunities and incentives to use literacy skills are infrequent. The mass media can give purpose and point to learning by provoking interest in the world beyond the town or village. The press, in addition, presents an opportunity and incitation to read. The country reports recognize, however, that the goal of education is not only to permit people to receive 'messages', but also, and especially, to enable them to express themselves. Hence, in Mexico - to cite but one example - learning groups are provided with mimeographs to permit them to write up and circulate local news and views.

Obviously, **enhancing the learning environment** extends beyond the media. Learning is often a response to new opportunities to participate in the economy, society and culture. To learn is also, as the Indian report notes, an act of hope and faith. It is far more likely to occur in dynamic societies where tomorrow is seen to hold the promise of a new day. As the emphasis in several of the nine countries turns from access to quality and achievement, there is a growing awareness that schools do not exist in isolation. They exist in societies which, by valuing and using the skills they teach, can contribute enormously to their effectiveness and, in particular, to the motivation of the students who attend them. To say that while schools teach subjects, society alone can teach the value of education, is perhaps an over-simplification, but a useful one, if it serves to emphasize the importance of context to the success of the educational enterprise.

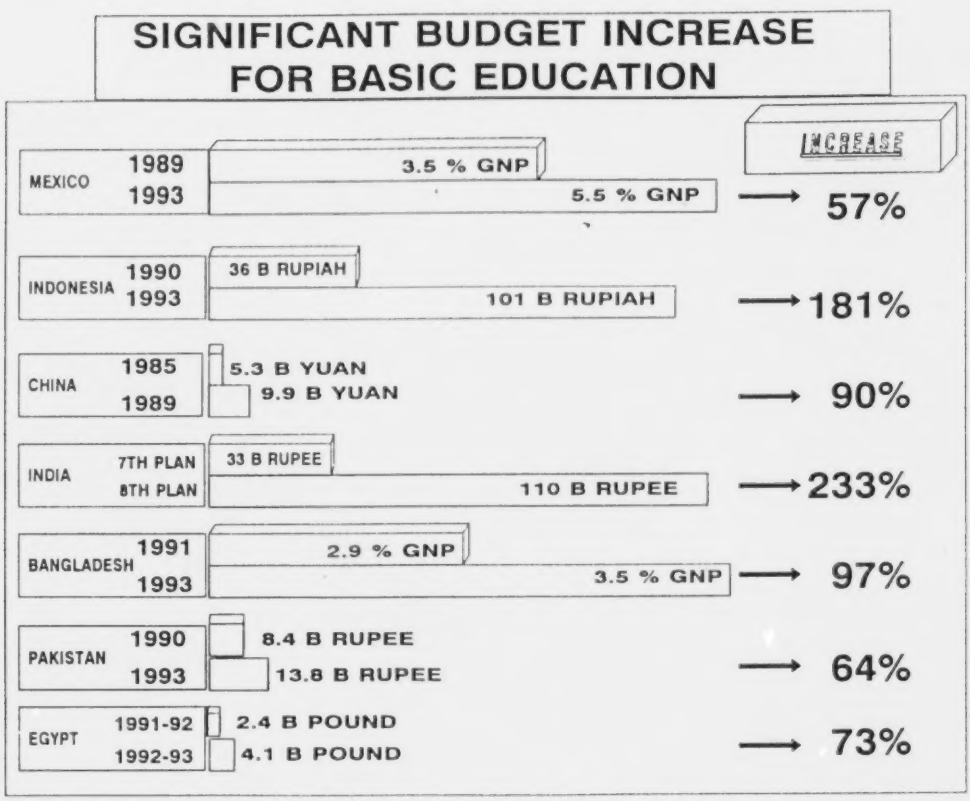
Mobilizing resources for EFA: In many societies, there is an on-going debate as to the importance of money in improving educational performance. The comments of Philip Coombs in this regard, cited in the Indian report, seem sensible: *'While not all problems of education can be solved by throwing money at them, without money to procure the essential physical inputs (buildings, equipment and other supplies) educational systems would collapse into empty structures'*. Indeed, under-financing of education system is one of the main causes of poor educational results. Often, fixed costs for teachers and staff consume nearly the entire budget, leaving nothing for learning materials, even textbooks.

The need for greater financial resources is recognized in all nine countries. Figure 3 summarizes the increases in resources allocated to education in seven of the nine countries during the last five years[4]. This information is derived from the country reports. It is indicative, not definitive. Particular care should be taken in making comparisons between countries. In some cases, the amount is shown as a percentage of gross national product. In other cases, it is expressed in national currency units. In many instances, the reports do not clarify whether the amounts indicated are in constant or current

[4] Information on Brazil and Nigeria was not available.

values. Moreover, in certain cases, the figures shown are the amounts budgeted rather than those actually spent. Yet, even with all of these caveats, the figure clearly suggests that EFA has received major increases in most countries. This was, of course, one of the main goals of the World Conference on Education for All.

Figure 3



Building partnerships: It is important, however, in considering financial support to EFA, to keep in mind that the amounts indicated are, in most cases, those allocated by the central or federal government. In certain federal systems, expenditures by the states are also included. But one of the goals of Jomtien was to encourage communities and NGOs to lend greater support to education. The World Conference recognized that EFA could not be achieved by governmental action alone. Governments possess neither the necessary resources nor the knowledge of local needs and conditions to ensure effective implementation of EFA policies. Hence, **partnership** was, from the beginning, one of the principles upon which the EFA movement was founded. Thus, the inputs into EFA cannot be fully measured by taking account of government budgets alone. Indeed, national effort should be judged more by the results it produces than by the resources it consumes.

In all of the nine countries, there has been a flowering of partnerships, especially in support of innovative programmes. Bangladesh plans to open some 9,000 additional registered non-governmental schools, most of them run by religious institutions. Brazil's **PRONAICA** programme envisages a close collaboration with communities. Pakistan has revived the mosque school, which now provides secular as well as religious instruction, and instituted a system of over 500 **home** schools run by NGOs. In brief, as the summaries of national action in the following sections of this paper reveal, there has been a systematic effort in all countries to enlist new partners in the EFA movement.

Strengthening international co-operation: All of the countries benefit in one form or another from international co-operation. In several countries, international support is mainly in the form of loans from the World Bank or regional banks. Technical assistance from multilateral sources, especially the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), also has played an important role in projects designed to build national capacity in selected aspects of basic education. In other countries, substantial bi-lateral assistance is being received. International NGOs, often working hand in hand with national NGOs, also provide technical and material support to small-scale projects in most of the nine countries. While substantial international assistance to education has been received by several countries, the impact has been greater than the amounts alone would suggest. Much of the aid received in several countries - including Brazil, China, India and Mexico - has been used mainly to test innovative approaches and carry through educational reforms. In a number of cases, international assistance has supported pilot projects which will be followed up with large-scale national programmes. Assistance has also been directed to the most disadvantaged areas and populations where the need is greatest.

Yet, as a proportion of total resources being invested in EFA, the quantity of international assistance has been relatively modest in most countries. It has not - and was not intended to - replace national funding. It has, nonetheless, substantially accelerated progress toward EFA in several countries. Certain countries are considerably more dependent on international support than are others. Bangladesh, for example, estimates that US$2,200 million of international support in the form of grants and concessional loans will be required from its development partners to enable it to carry through its EFA plans during the period 1993-2000. Bangladesh plans to invest over $2.5 billion of its own funds in EFA during the same period.

Conclusion: This section has traced out a few of the many essential steps that countries must take to achieve EFA. As with any complex process, it calls for policy-making, priority-setting, planning, assignment of responsibilities, financing and the countless steps involved in implementation. Yet, all this, while necessary, will not suffice. Given the scope of the

undertaking and its critical importance to society, EFA cannot be handled as an administrative or bureaucratic matter alone. It calls for social mobilization and emergency measures. It is not only a question of running schools, establishing literacy centres or opening early childhood education centres - although these are all essential -, but of mobilizing the will and moral force, the time and effort, the material and financial means to pursue EFA as a priority objective. Only in this matter, can the goal be achieved. EFA, in brief, is not only an educational issue, it is a societal issue. In a very fundamental sense, what is at stake is the nation's future.

IV. The Components of EFA: An Overview

This section examines the three key components of EFA strategies: **primary education**, **literacy** and other programmes for adolescents and adults, and **early childhood care and education**. The situation in each of these programme areas is first analyzed for the nine countries as a whole; summaries of significant developments in each country are then presented.

While for analytical purposes it is convenient to deal with each component separately, it is essential to keep in mind that education takes place in society and culture, not in isolation. It is an interactive process: the education of parents influences the educability of their children, just as the general level of education and well-being in the society influences the ease with which its individual members can be educated. Over time, the relationship between the various components evolves, as does the priority accorded to each. Hence, the educational strategy of each country has to be tailored to its particular circumstances and stage of development.

In those countries where a large part of the school-age population is not being served, the emphasis will normally and rightly be on expanding access to primary education. This is the situation of at least four of the nine countries. As a country approaches an enrolment rate of 90 per cent, the main problem may no longer be that of expanding capacity, but of including children who are either hard to reach or, for various reasons, hard to serve. Five of the countries are already at or approaching this stage. Primary education in the nine countries is not, of course, monolithic. Certain regions in each country are still struggling to provide access. Other regions are concerned with extending education to a minority of out-of-school children while, in the most developed regions of all countries, the emphasis is mainly on improving quality.

In countries where mass illiteracy is rife, programmes for adolescents and adults are intended mainly to teach literacy and numeracy to the unschooled. With the spread of primary education, however, the emphasis in several countries is gradually shifting to school drop-outs whose basic skills are fragile and in need of further development. Over time, demand for various forms of adult education - especially vocational and technical training - can be expected to grow, as is already happening in China, Mexico, Indonesia and other countries. Yet, for many years to come, there will continue to be an important, if gradually diminishing, role for adult literacy programmes. As discussed below, the number of illiterates in all nine countries, especially illiterate women, remains high. Moreover, over one-third of all illiterate adults are below thirty-five years of age. Their needs cannot be ignored.

Early childhood education and care is intended to provide a foundation for future educational success. The early years of

a child's life are a critical stage of development. While, traditionally, institutionalized pre-schools have mainly served urban elites, there is a growing tendency to develop innovative, often non-formal, programmes as a means for preparing disadvantaged children to enter and succeed in school. Programmes for parents are also being developed to serve the same end. Once a majority of children have gained access to primary education, pre-school programmes may be given greater emphasis, as is already happening in several countries, as a means for reaching difficult-to-serve children and preparing them for school. Research demonstrates that children in pre-schools are far more likely to enter primary school than children from similar backgrounds who have not benefited from pre-school programmes. This is especially true for girls.

The overall aim of EFA policies is, of course, to educate the society as a whole. As noted above, the media of mass communication - newspapers, radio, television, films and more recent combinations and derivations of these - provide the means for doing so directly. Even conventional programmes, however, while aimed at one or another sex or age-group, are intended to have a synergistic effect by progressively transforming the manner in which members of the society act and interact. Literacy, to cite an obvious example, flourishes in societies where reading is a skill shared by people of all ages and both sexes and consequently represents an economic and effective means of communicating information of general interest. Ultimately, we are educated not only in particular institutions, but in the society and culture as a whole.

V. Towards Universal Primary Education

1. Identification and Analysis of Issues

It is recognized in all nine countries that primary education must be at the very heart of any successful education for all strategy. Universal Primary Education (UPE) is the means for drying up the main source of adult illiteracy: the millions of unschooled or ill-schooled adolescents who each year enter adulthood lacking the basic knowledge and skills to lead productive and satisfying lives. Three essential considerations by which the success of primary education can be judged are discussed in the sections that follow: **access**, **retention** and **achievement**. As will become evident in the section devoted to a review of primary education in each country, these are complex issues that the nine countries are addressing with both determination and innovation. Of these considerations, **access**, while insufficient in itself, is the most fundamental. The first and most obvious question to be asked of any primary education system is: does it serve all children?

Access

As Table 3 showing net enrolment ratios reveals, the nine countries vary considerably in their progress towards Universal Primary Education. China, Indonesia and Mexico have virtually achieved universal enrolment. In Brazil, Egypt and India, continuing efforts will be required, but, by the end of the century, all three countries could be within 5 to 10 percentage points of achieving UPE. Enrolling the final 5 to 10 per cent of children is, however, especially challenging as special programmes and approaches are likely to be required. In most countries, these hard-to-serve groups include street and working children, youngsters who live in urban slums and remote rural areas, belong to ethnic, linguistic or cultural minorities, or are affected by physical or mental impairments of various sorts and degrees. Thus, while these countries are close to the goal of UPE, the distance left to travel is likely to require innovation and creativity as well as persevering effort.

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Table 3

NET ENROLMENT RATIOS IN PRIMARY EDUCATION IN THE NINE HIGH POPULATION COUNTRIES

COUNTRY	1980*	1990*	ESTIMATES 1993		PROJECTIONS 2000	
			WITHOUT EFA	WITH EFA	WITHOUT EFA	WITH EFA
Bangladesh	58.7	61.7	61.9	66.5	62.9	81.7
Brazil	91.3	83.6	80.4	87.9	83.6	96.0
China	96.1	97.6	97.6	98.6	98.0	98.6
Egypt	70.2	82.5	83.1	89.2	88.6	92.9
India	58.5	68.2	71.7	87.8	74.3	92.0
Indonesia	86.0	92.6	95.9	97.0	96.5	98.4
Mexico	84.2	94.6	94.6	98.5	94.3	98.6
Nigeria	53.2	60.2	61.0	75.6	77.9	86.5
Pakistan	34.8	39.0	37.3	38.9	31.4	49.0
TOTAL	73.8	78.9	80.0	87.5	82.0	91.5

Source : * UNESCO Statistical Yearbooks 1980-1992.

While the difficulty of the task should not be underestimated, there are, as already observed, promising prospects that, by the end of the century, six of the nine countries will have between 90 and 100 per cent of school-age children enrolled in school. The remaining countries, if they devote themselves to the task, should be able to reach 90 per cent enrolment during the first decade of the 21st century. Indeed, there is a real prospect that, by the end of the decade, over 90 per cent of all children in the nine countries will be able to find a place in a primary school, as compared to an estimated 79 per cent in 1990. It must be emphasized, however, that this outcome, while achievable, will not happen by itself. Progress is not fated: it has to be earned. Achieving UPE will require an enormous effort and the commitment of substantial resources. Indeed, as the 'without EFA' scenarios indicate, if efforts to achieve EFA are not sustained, there is a danger that progress could stagnate.

The consequence of stagnation, as Table 4 reveals, would be an increase in the number of out-of-school children. It is estimated that in 1993, as a result of EFA efforts, the number of out-of-school children in the nine countries has been reduced to 42 million - a decline of nearly 25 million from 1990. If EFA efforts are pursued and strengthened, the number of out-of-school children is projected to continue to decline, reaching 31.2 million in the year 2000. Should there be a let up in efforts, however, demographic pressures would push the number back up to a projected 65.8 million at the end of the century.

It, therefore, becomes imperative to continue to increase enrolments rapidly if the objectives set by the World Conference on Education for All are to be reached or, in several countries, even approached. This, of course, is precisely what the nine high-population countries have resolved to do.

Table 4

Out-of-School Children of Primary School-Age in the Nine High-Population Countries

(millions)

COUNTRY	1980	1990	1993		ESTIMATES 2000	
			WITHOUT EFA	WITH EFA	WITHOUT EFA	WITH EFA
Bangladesh	5.9	6.4	6.7	5.9	7.3	3.6
Brazil	2.1	4.4	5.5	3.4	4.9	1.2
China	2.9	2.2	2.4	1.4	2.4	1.6
Egypt	1.7	1.1	1.1	0.7	0.8	0.5
India	37.6	31.7	28.9	12.5	27.4	8.5
Indonesia	3.3	2.0	1.1	0.8	0.9	0.4
Mexico	1.9	0.7	0.7	0.2	0.8	0.2
Nigeria	8.1	7.4	7.8	4.9	4.9	3.0
Pakistan	8.8	10.8	12.1	11.8	16.4	12.2
TOTAL	72.3	66.7	66.3	41.6	65.8	31.2

The expansion in enrolment required in each of the countries to achieve UPE is estimated in Table 5. To reach this goal, it is necessary both to compensate for the incomplete coverage of the education system in 1993 - i.e. the approximately 42 million out-of-school children in the nine countries - and take account of the growth of the school-age population, by an estimated 34 million, during the remainder of the century. Thus, collectively, the nine countries would have to increase their enrolments by a total of approximately 76 million. This figure is large both in absolute and relative terms. Reaching it would require an over 20 per cent increase in enrolment of the primary school-age group between now and the end of the century.

Table 5

Implied Increase in Primary Enrolment Required to Enroll all Children in the Year 2000

(millions)

COUNTRY	ESTIMATED PRIMARY SCHOOL-AGE POPULATION IN 1993	ENROLMENT OF PRIMARY SCHOOL-AGE POPULATION IN 1993	NET ENROLMENT RATIO IN 1993 (%)	PROJECTED PRIMARY SCHOOL AGE POPULATION IN 2000	REQUIRED INCREASE IN NET ENROLMENT BY THE YEAR 2000 TO ACHIEVE 100 % NER
BANGLADESH	17.6	11.7	66.5	19.7	8.0
BRAZIL	28.0	24.6	87.9	29.9	5.3
CHINA	98.9	97.5	98.6	117.1	19.6
EGYPT	6.5	5.8	89.2	7.0	1.2
INDIA	102.1	89.6	87.8	106.7	17.1
INDONESIA	26.8	26.0	97.0	25.4	-0.6
MEXICO	13.0	12.8	98.5	14.0	1.2
NIGERIA	20.1	15.2	75.6	22.2	7.0
PAKISTAN	19.3	7.5	38.9	23.9	16.4
TOTAL	332.3	290.7	87.5	365.9	75.2

As will be observed in Table 5, the situation varies significantly among countries. In Indonesia, where the school-age population is projected to decline, universal enrolment can be achieved even as total enrolment diminishes. For Mexico, which was already enrolling an estimated 98.5 per cent of all children in 1993, the task would appear quite manageable. By the end of the decade, some 1.2 million additional school places would be required, an increase of less than 10 per cent as compared with 1993. For Pakistan, on the other hand, the task is insurmountable - and recognized as such by its Government - because of the under-development of its education system and the high rate of growth of the school-age population. In 1993, less than 40 per cent of the primary school-age population was enrolled; moreover, this age-group was growing at an annual rate of over 2 per cent. The combination of these two factors means that enrolment of children of school age would have to triple by the end of the century to achieve UPE in Pakistan.

Universal enrolment may not be quite as difficult to achieve as the above statistics suggest because the capacity of the education system is greater than indicated. Table 5 takes account only of those students of primary-school age whereas a considerable number of older and younger students are also enrolled in primary schools in most countries. As Table 6 indicates, there is a sizeable disparity between the net enrolment, the number of students of a official school-age

actually enrolled, and the gross enrolment, in which all students of whatever age are counted. In Pakistan, for example, school enrolment in 1990 consisted of approximately 6.9 million children of primary-school age and some 2 million under and over-aged youngsters.

Table 6

OVER AND UNDER-AGED CHILDREN ENROLLED IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN 1990 AND 1993

COUNTRY	ENROLMENT 1990		OVER AND UNDER-AGED CHILDREN IN 1990	ENROLMENT 1993		OVER AND UNDER-AGED CHILDREN IN 1993
	GROSS	NET		GROSS	NET (WITH EFA)	
	(MILLION)		(MILLION)	(MILLION)		(MILLION)
Bangladesh	11.9	10.3	1.6	13.5	11.7	1.8
Brazil	28.9	22.4	6.5	31.1	24.6	6.5
China	122.4	88.7	33.7	135.9	97.5	38.4
Egypt	6.3	5.2	1.1	6.3	5.8	0.5
India	99.1	68.0	31.1	105.4	89.6	15.8
Indonesia	31.4	24.9	6.5	29.6	26.0	3.6
Mexico	14.4	12.2	2.2	14.3	12.8	1.5
Nigeria	13.6	11.2	2.4	16.8	15.2	1.6
Pakistan	8.9	6.9	2.0	10.3	7.5	2.8
TOTAL	337.0	249.8	87.2	363.2	290.7	72.5

In the nine countries together, the number of under-aged and over-aged children in 1993 was estimated at 72.5 million, over 20 per cent of the total enrolment. Hence, if enrolment were limited to the primary school age-group only, the number of new places required to accommodate all school-age children would be considerably less than indicated in Table 5. Indeed, as can be observed by comparing Tables 5 and 6, in 1993 all children of school age could have been accommodated in six of the nine countries if enrolment were limited to children of official school age only. The possibility of freeing all or even most of the places now occupied by younger and older children should not, however, be over-estimated. It will be extremely difficult - and may even be undesirable in many cases - to exclude under-aged and, more particularly, over-aged children from school. A closer correspondence between age and grade normally develops as schools become better established in societies. In regions where primary schools are still pioneering institutions, there are many good reasons for students to enter school later than prescribed in the official regulations: e.g. the school may be farther from home than a young child can walk alone. Nonetheless, it should be possible to improve significantly the correspondence between age

and grade enrolment over the course of the current decade by limiting the entry of under-aged students and, more particularly, by sharply reducing grade repetition, thereby decreasing the number of over-aged children in the system. Indeed, this is already happening: between 1990 and 1993, the number of over and under-aged children was reduced by nearly 15 million in the nine countries.

Providing Teachers: There are many factors that constrain the growth of school places. Of these, perhaps the most serious long-term constraint in several countries is the availability of qualified teachers. Table 7 estimates that the primary-school teaching force will have to expand by approximately 1,250,000 teachers between 1990 and 2000, if UPE is to be achieved in all the nine countries. This projection is based on the assumption that the pupil-teacher ratio in the year 2000 will vary from a low of 22 in China, where access is already nearly universal and the accent during the present decade will be on improving quality, to 50 in Bangladesh, where ensuring access will continue to be the major challenge.

Table 7

ESTIMATED TEACHERS` REQUIREMENTS TO ACHIEVE UPE BY THE YEAR 2000

COUNTRY	PROJECTED ENROLMENT IN THE YEAR 2000 TO ATTAIN U.P.E. (000`S)	ESTIMATED PUPIL-TEACHER RATIO IN 2000	ESTIMATED TEACHER REQUIREMENTS TO ATTAIN U.P.E. (000`S)	TOTAL TEACHERS IN 1990 (000`S)	ADDITIONAL TEACHERS REQUIRED (000`S)
Bangladesh	19,700	50	394.0	189.5	204.5
Brazil	29,900	23	1,300.0	1,260.5	39.5
China	117,100	22	5,322.7	5,581.8	-259.1
Egypt	7,000	23	304.3	279.3	25.0
India	106,700	43	2,481.4	1,636.9	844.5
Indonesia	25,400	23	1,104.3	1,286.3	-182.0
Mexico	14,000	31	451.6	471.6	-20.0
Nigeria	22,200	40	555.0	353.6	201.4
Pakistan	23,900	38	628.9	218.3	410.6
TOTAL	365,900		12,542.4	11,277.8	1264.6

As will be observed, the demand for teachers differs greatly from country to country. In Mexico, China and Indonesia, where enrolment ratios are already high and population growth has slowed, teacher requirements, it is estimated, will be lower in 2000 than they were in 1990. On the other hand, in Bangladesh,

if UPE is to be achieved, the number of teachers would have to more than double by the end of the decade and, in Pakistan, it would have to nearly triple. It is, evidently, virtually impossible to increase the teaching force to such an extent within a single decade. For this reason, as noted below, Bangladesh and Pakistan are among the countries that are actively exploring and testing the creation of alternative school systems in which clergy, educated community members and others serve as teachers.

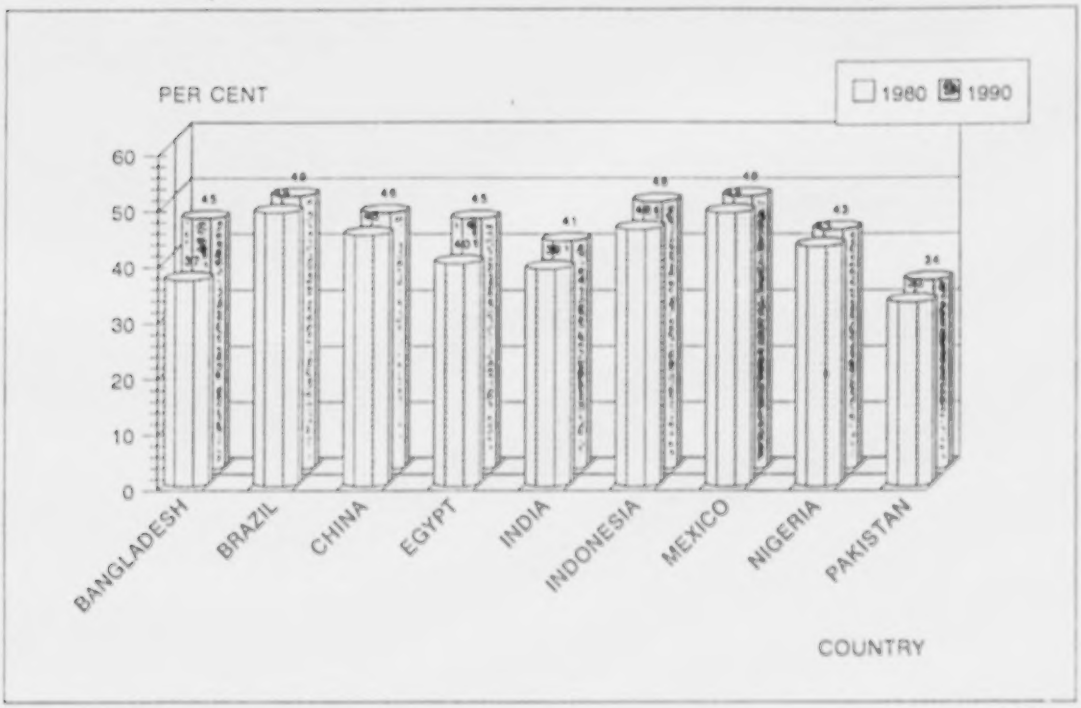
As concerns teachers, quality is even more important than quantity. Quality is determined mainly by the education, training and motivation of teachers, as well as by the professional support and assistance provided to them. As the accounts of national action reveal, improving teacher quality and motivation is a concern in all countries, one that is leading to a wide range of actions designed both to better prepare teachers for their role and to raise the status and rewards of the teaching profession.

Gender and other Disparities

Gender disparity: is the largest single obstacle to achieving UPE. To look at UPE as a kind of 'numbers game', as has been done above with data on enrolment and teacher requirements, is to see only part of the truth. It assumes that all the problems are on the supply side of the equation: that once places are provided, students will flock to them. Experience disconfirms this assumption. On the contrary, it shows that primary schools have not only to provide places, they have to reach out to welcome and assist students who, for various reasons, find it difficult to attend school. Figure 4 shows female enrolment as a percentage of total enrolment in primary schools in the nine countries in 1980 and 1990. Considering the countries collectively, female enrolment as a percentage of total enrolment increased from 42 per cent in 1980 to 44 per cent in 1990. The differences among countries, however, are sizeable. In two countries, female enrolment constituted 49 per cent of enrolment in 1990. In another, girls made up only 34 per cent of the total.

Figure 4

FEMALE ENROLMENT IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS : 1980 - 1990 (AS PER CENT OF TOTAL ENROLMENT)



Source : UNESCO Statistical Yearbooks, 1980-1992.

The causes of gender disparity are multiple and require thoughtful analysis. While religious and cultural factors are usually cited as reasons for non-participation, there is often a strong economic motive as well. Girls, because of the service they render in caring for siblings and working in the house, are often considered to be more needed and valuable at home than are boys. Parents are also more reluctant to permit their daughters to walk long distances to school or to study under teachers of the opposite sex, than they are their sons. Gender disparity, to a greater or lesser degree, was formerly a problem in all of the nine countries. Overcoming obstacles to the enrolment of girls calls for a careful analysis of their causes and the conditions under which they arise. Only on the basis of such knowledge can effective approaches to remedying gender disparities be devised. As indicated below, this is an issue which is receiving thoughtful attention in several countries.

Other disparities: In all societies, many other forms of disparity arise. Certain of these are situational: for example, the difficulty of reaching and serving far-flung rural or nomadic populations or the challenges of conducting schools in urban slums or shanty towns. Other are social or cultural in origin. Rates of participation are generally lower among children of

linguistic, cultural or ethnic minorities than among the rest of the population. Economic factors also play an important part in accounting for disparities. Children from poor families are more likely to work and less likely to attend school than those from better-off families. Despite child labour laws, they may be required to work in order to survive , often enduring cruel exploitation as well as forfeiting their right to education. Indeed, while child labour laws are in the books in most countries, they are often ignored in practice. Moreover, the educational provision made in poor areas is often very inferior to that offered in more prosperous communities. Hence, even those children of the poor who are eager to get an education find it difficult to do so. Children with physical or mental impairments also face special problems and, as a consequence, have a considerably lower rate of school participation.

While one can generalize about the causes of such disparities, the remedies proposed have to be specific to a particular situation. As will be seen below, an entire range of approaches is being tested in the nine countries. Indeed, certain of these are already being implemented on a large scale. Moreover, it is recognized in all countries that achieving UPE calls not only for the expansion of educational systems - as essential as this is -, but also for political, social and cultural action aimed both at overcoming obstacles to participation and at making primary schools more attractive and appealing to those parts of the population that are being asked, often for the first time, to send their daughters and sons to attend them.

Drop-Out and Repetition

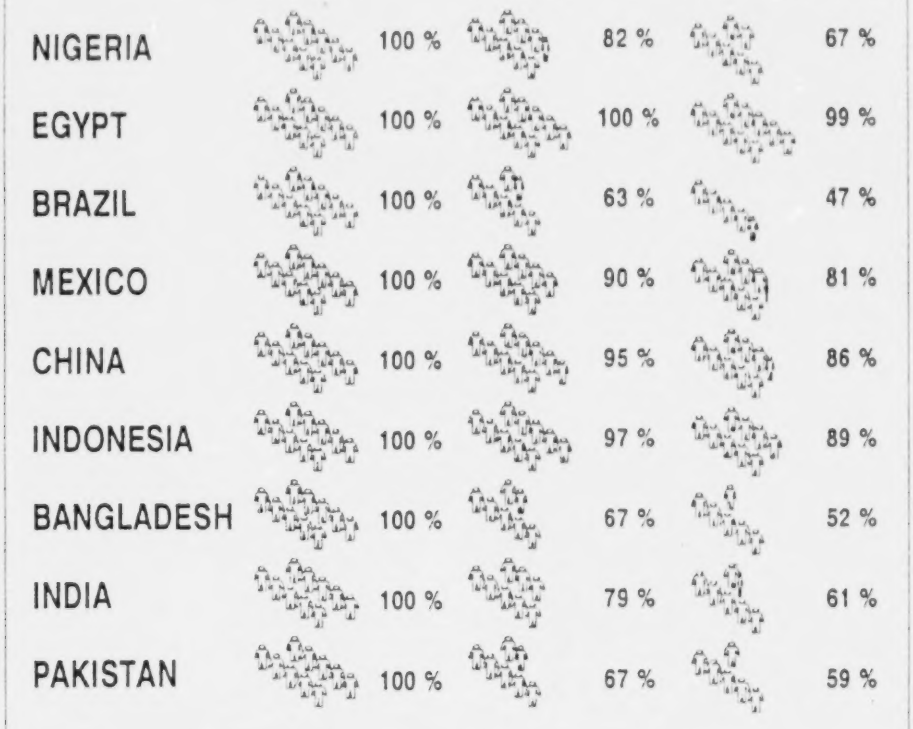
Drop-out: *'Enrolment by itself'*, the **Plan of Action** of India's **National Policy on Education (NEP)** notes, *'is of little importance if children do not continue beyond one year, many of them not seeing the school for more than a few days'*. Drop-out is a major problem in most of the nine countries, one that seriously diminishes the impact of the large investments being made in primary education. As a rule of thumb, successful completion of four grades of primary schooling is usually considered a minimum for ensuring an enduring level of literacy. This is significant because in many developing countries, and at least four of the nine high-population countries, primary-school enrolment is concentrated in the first three years of the primary cycle. Because of repetition, drop-out, re-entry and other factors, millions of students will be enrolled for more than four years without ever progressing as far as the fourth grade.

Figure 5 shows the estimated survival rates for the second and fourth grades for the nine countries. As will be noted, the situation varies considerably from country to country. In Bangladesh, for example, only two out of three students who enter grade one succeed in entering grade two in the following year. Only roughly one student in two makes it into the fourth grade on schedule. For Brazil, the 'survival rates' are even lower.

Fewer than half the students in an entering cohort will continue together to enter the fourth grade four years later. By contrast, in Egypt, where a policy of automatic promotion prevails, unless there are special reasons for holding a child back, 99 per cent of the entering cohort continue on together to the fourth grade or beyond.

Figure 5

PRIMARY EDUCATION: SURVIVAL RATES IN 1988
IN THE NINE HIGH-POPULATION COUNTRIES



Source : "Primary Education : Survival", UNESCO Division of Statistics, December 1991.

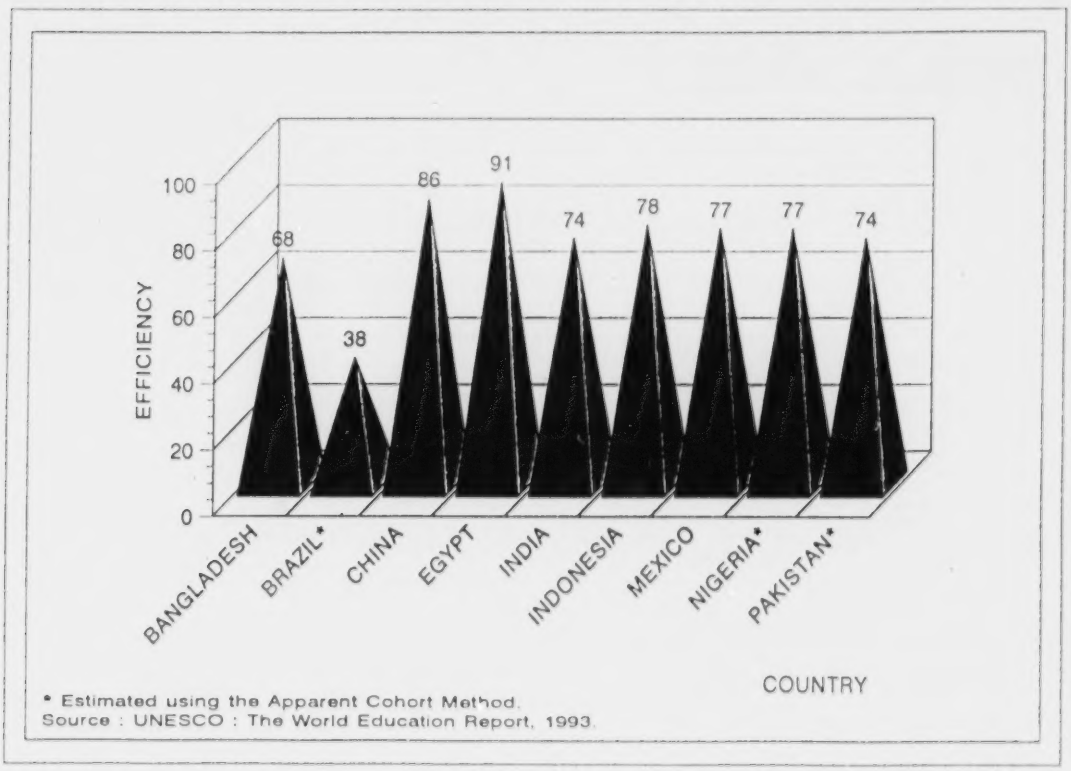
Repetition: Children may, of course, repeat grades and nonetheless continue their studies to completion. The evidence suggests, however, that repetition is often a precursor to drop-out. Even where this is not the case, repetition is a serious concern to school systems that have limited capacity and cannot accommodate all school-age children. Repetition increases the number of years required to complete the primary cycle and hence limits the intake of new students that can be accommodated. The **coefficient of efficiency** provides a means for estimating and comparing the internal efficiency of systems. This coefficient is the ratio between the theoretical number of pupil-years

required to complete a cycle of education, assuming there is no repetition or drop-out, and the actual number of years spent by the cohort in completing that cycle. A coefficient of 1.00 would indicate an identity between the theoretical and the observed values and, hence, perfect efficiency.

Figure 6 shows that the coefficients for the nine countries range from .91 for Egypt to .38 for Brazil. The implication of this figure is that six of the countries could, in theory, accommodate at least 20 per cent more students in their schools were they able to reduce repetition and drop-out.

Figure 6

ESTIMATED INTERNAL EFFICIENCY OF PRIMARY EDUCATION IN 1990



In interpreting the above figure, it is important to realize that the duration of the primary school cycle ranges from five years in several countries to eight years in Brazil. Hence, the figures are not precisely comparable. Nonetheless, differences in efficiency remain significant even in situations where the duration of primary education and the age ranges served are identical. In effect, Figure 6 and Table 6 examine essentially the same reality from different perspectives. Table 6 shows the number of over-aged and under-aged children enrolled in primary school, whereas Figure 6 reflects the main cause of the large number of over-aged children: class repetition. The point and

purpose of both is to demonstrate that even modest improvements in internal efficiency - for which there is clearly room - would enable existing educational institutions to accommodate millions of additional children.

Quality of Learning and Achievement

The goal set at the World Conference on Education for All was to meet the basic learning needs of all. Access to school was seen as a means, not a goal. In practice, however, access to and retention in primary school represent the main means for offering youth an opportunity for systematic instruction in basic learning and living skills. Yet, schooling, while essential, does not guarantee that basic knowledge and essential learning skills will be mastered. There are two key questions that need to be asked. The first is normative: what should be learned? The second is empirical: what is actually being learned?

What should be learned? The World Declaration on Education for All defines basic learning as comprising *'both essential learning tools (such as literacy, oral expression, numeracy, and problem-solving) and the basic learning content (such as knowledge, skills, values and attitudes) required by human beings to be able to survive, to develop their full capacities, to live and work in dignity, to participate fully in development, to improve the quality of their lives, to make informed decisions, and to continue learning. The scope of basic learning needs and how they should be met varies with individual countries and cultures, and, inevitably, changes with the passage of time'.*

What is being learned? It is here perhaps that our information is least complete and the need for additional knowledge greatest. While the situation obviously varies greatly from country to country and is highly complex, there is abundant reason for concern. It seems evident that primary education in most, if not all, countries fails to meet the goals of basic education stipulated in Jomtien. Several failings are frequently cited. Perhaps the most common of these is that the primary curriculum is overloaded, diffuse and insufficiently focused on mastery of basic knowledge and learning skills. Related to this is the charge that the curriculum is too much oriented to preparing students for the next step on the educational ladder and too little directed at enabling them to live productive lives within their communities. Indeed, many critics go further than this: charging that primary education not only fails to prepare students to live more successfully in their communities, usually in rural areas, but alienates them from rural life. A word of caution may be advisable here: education should be relevant not only to the world from which children come, but also to the world they are preparing to enter, a world in which science and technology will have a growing impact on daily life everywhere. Hence, while education should 'speak' to the local situation, it must also transcend it. Good education should use the local to illustrate the universal, and the universal to illuminate the local.

The degree to which such charges made by critics are valid certainly varies from country to country and, within countries, from situation to situation. They are nonetheless a cause for reflection and action and, indeed, as the country summaries reveal, are receiving much thought and occasioning a good deal of action in nearly all countries. Primary education provides a unique and precious opportunity for children to devote themselves to learning. Its duration is short. The time must, thus, be focused upon mastering essential skills and subject-matters that can provide a basis for life-long learning: through other kinds and levels of education, where such opportunities are available, or through self-learning, where they are not. But primary education is not only about gaining knowledge and skills, it is also about forming values and attitudes.

How much is being learned? Closely related to the issue of the quality and relevance of the learning mastered in the primary school, is that of the quantity of learning acquired or level of achievement. Among the key indicators of achievement -or, more exactly, of lack of it - are the high levels of drop-out and repetition noted above. The most obvious causes of low achievement are the shortage of essential inputs into the learning process and the difficult conditions under which schooling often takes place. As will be discussed below, the nine countries, conscious of the urgent need to improve learning achievement, are taking a wide range of measures aimed at up-grading the quality of teaching, the provision of learning materials and the condition of school buildings and facilities. These are obvious steps and ones that experience has proven to be effective in improving educational outcome. But there is also a need, as nearly all countries recognize, for more effective monitoring of achievement as part of a system of continuing improvement and development of the education system. Several of the nine countries have already given careful attention to this, by setting and monitoring minimum levels of learning or through other approaches. Better knowledge of the causes of high or low achievement should result in the formulation of more effective educational policies for improving learning in schools.

Language and initial instruction: All of the nine countries are, to a limited or high degree, multilingual. In certain of them, there are ten or more major languages and hundreds of dialects, most of the latter having neither a standardized nor a written form. Educational policy has to take account of this complex reality. There is an abundance of research demonstrating that initial learning is most rapidly and effectively acquired in the mother tongue. Wherever feasible, therefore, it is recommended that the medium of initial instruction be the mother tongue or home language of the learner. Where circumstances make this impossible - which is often the case in areas where numerous local dialects co-exist -, it is important to provide a period of orientation in which the medium of instruction is learned as an oral language before or at the same time as it is taught as a written language. Failure to take account of the inherent difficulties encountered in learning in a language unfamiliar to the learner is often one of the main factors explaining non-

enrolment, early drop-out and low achievement among linguistic minorities. Fortunately, there is evidence of increasing efforts in many of the nine countries to address the educational and cultural implications of language and language choice.

Implications: Several conclusions can be drawn from the above analysis. The first of these is that the primary education system in most countries is at a critical turning point. There is the possibility and promise of rapid progress in the coming years that would enable several countries to offer nearly universal access and would put others within reach of that goal. But there is also a danger: given demographic pressure, stagnation in enrolment growth would result in declines in enrolment ratios and increases in the number of out-of-school youth. In most countries, there is an evident need to improve the internal efficiency of the education system in order to expand enrolment or to reduce class size. Even with such improvements, however, in a number of countries it will prove impossible to increase capacity fast enough to absorb all children. In these cases, the development of non-formal primary education, the establishment of **mosque** and **home** schools and a wide variety of other approaches are being explored as interim measures until such time as school places can be made available in the needed numbers. It is also evident that enrolling the final five to ten per cent of difficult-to-reach or serve children will require the development of innovative approaches. Lastly, there are the perennial concerns for improving quality, relevance and achievement. In most countries, there is a growing conviction that, if education is to serve its intended purposes, improvement of quality will have to be addressed with the same sense of urgency as increasing capacity. Education, after all, must in the final analysis be judged by the learning it produces.

2. Action in Primary Education

This section provides a summary of major developments in primary education in each of the nine countries, based upon the country reports prepared for the Summit. Such summaries are, of necessity, highly selective. The emphasis in these accounts is on the innovative rather than the routine. It is this which is judged to be of greatest potential interest to readers in other countries. Yet, while innovation and creativity are necessary to surmount problems, achieving UPE calls, above all else, for persevering effort. Success in this undertaking is not won: it is earned.

Bangladesh: confronts nearly all of the educational problems plaguing developing nations. Although primary education was made compulsory throughout the country in 1993, over 20 per cent of school-age children have never attended school and, of those who do enroll, 60 per cent drop out before completing the five-year primary cycle. Non-participation is

especially high among girls, although progress is being made in this area. Presently, girls constitute approximately 45 per cent of enrolment as compared to 40 per cent in 1985.

Educational policy is aimed at achieving three goals: (i) increasing capacity in order to make access available to more children; (ii) overcoming gender disparity; and (iii) improving the quality and relevance of the learning content and the degree to which students master it. In order to increase capacity, the government has undertaken an ambitious programme to construct 100,000 classrooms by the year 2000. The government is also encouraging the opening of 9,000 additional registered non-governmental schools, many of them run by religious institutions, raising the total number of such schools to over 20,000 by the end of the century.

While sizeable, the above measures will not be sufficient to accommodate all children in school. Greater reliance will, therefore, be placed upon the development of non-formal primary education. **BRAC**, the **Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee**, is recognized worldwide as a pioneer in this area. BRAC, in close co-operation with the communities being served, operates 12,000 schools for two age-groups: 8-10-year olds, who have never attended a government school, and 11-16-year olds, who have either never attended or dropped out of school. It is the policy of BRAC that girls make up at least 70 per cent of enrolment. Classes are limited to a maximum of 30 students; teachers are recruited from the community and trained by BRAC. The curriculum is highly structured and focused on mastery of basic learning and living skills. Student achievement is closely monitored. The approach is obviously effective as most students both complete their studies with BRAC and succeed in transferring to governmental schools. Another non-formal programme, the **Underprivileged Children Education Programme (UCEP)**, serves 'street urchins' and 'child labourers' between the ages of ten and twelve years. Classes meet for only two to three hours per day in order that children may continue the work in which they are engaged: work which is often vital to their survival and that of their families. After three years of such part-time studies, students will have mastered literacy and numeracy and will begin preparation for vocational training aimed at giving them marketable skills. Reportedly, class attendance has been high, over 85 per cent, and drop-out low, less than 5 per cent per year. Both BRAC and UCEP are examples of how education can be tailored to fit the lives and serve the needs of students.

Bangladesh is pursuing several approaches aimed at overcoming gender disparity. In order to encourage girls to continue their studies, they are offered eight years of free education as compared to five years for boys. One of the aims of this policy is to increase the supply of future female teachers. By regulation, 60 per cent of newly recruited government teachers must be women. The development of satellite schools, small institutions of only two classes located in rural hamlets, is another measure to promote the enrolment of girls by siting schools close to their homes. As indicated above, these

measures are having a positive impact as evidenced by the fact that the enrolment of girls is now increasing faster than that of boys.

To improve the quality of learning, the primary-school curriculum has been overhauled and new textbooks, teachers' guides and instructional materials developed. The new curriculum is aimed at improving mastery of basic learning and life skills while, at the same time, rendering education more relevant to rural life. Greater emphasis is placed on health, sanitation, hygiene and the development of practical skills; stories and illustrations have been selected to reflect the rural life situations in which most students live. A new approach has also been developed to monitoring achievement, using a cluster sampling methodology and simplified examination procedures. This system is designed to quickly spot problems in order that remedial actions may be taken without delay.

All of the above measures are intended to enable Bangladesh to meet the targets it has set itself: increasing **gross** enrolment from 78 per cent at present to 82 per cent in 1995 and 95 per cent in 2000 while, at the same time, improving the rate of completion from 40 per cent at present to 52 per cent in 1995 and 70 per cent in 2000. Even if these targets are achieved in full, Bangladesh will still be far from offering all its children a complete basic education. It will, however, have reached the point by the end of the century where this goal will be achievable in the course of the coming decade.

Brazil: *'No longer is it a question of merely offering a greater number of vacancies to potential students and, in this way, achieving the goal of universalization of education. It is now a matter of defining a strategy of making education more effective, of improving quality and equalizing the development opportunities of every citizen'*. This statement defines both Brazil's situation and its strategy. Education is compulsory between ages seven and fourteen and approximately 90 per cent of students have access to school. The most obvious problems afflicting primary education in Brazil are drop-out and repetition, especially in the early years of the primary cycle. Only 40 per cent of children complete the fourth grade and only 20 per cent do so without having repeated one or more classes. As a result, while Brazil has nearly 30 million students in primary education, fewer than one million successfully complete their primary studies each year.

Moreover, critics charge that the schools are not providing children with an education that is relevant to the country's *'stage of social and political development, nor are they preparing youth for participation in a modern economy, nor even for the full exercise of their rights as citizens in a democratic state'*. Brazilian education is clearly facing new challenges and is being judged by new standards.

To respond to these challenges, Brazil has introduced a ten-year plan of education for all. One of the major initiatives in this plan is the **PRONAICA** programme, aimed at providing integral care to children and adolescents. The premise of this programme is that addressing the needs of children is an essential first step in solving the problems of schooling. The programme seeks to provide comprehensive care, including health and nutrition, by mobilizing the resources of the state, the society and the family. While this programme, presently at a pilot stage, will have a powerful impact on the planning and provision of primary education, its underlying assumption is that school problems are symptoms of deeper social issues that need to be addressed. It, therefore, is concerned with the infants as well as the school-age children and with social integration through culture and sports as well as with schooling.

Another major initiative is the **Northeast Education Project** covering Brazil's largest, poorest and second most populous region. This project, which is being carried out with the assistance of the World Bank, is intended to benefit six million primary-school students through the training of 625,000 teachers, the distribution of over 1,000 million textbooks and the building or rehabilitation of 119,000 classrooms. The specific aims of the project are to increase enrolment, reduce drop-out and repetition and improve learning achievement. This last goal is also the objective of the **National System of Basic Evaluation**, which will carry out nation-wide research and testing to find more effective ways of evaluating achievement on a regular basis. In brief, Brazil is engaged in a fundamental reassessment of its primary education system with a view to making it, at once, more effective and more equitable. It is this common concern which links together the country's numerous programmes and projects of educational reform.

By the end of the century, Brazil intends to extend access to the approximately ten per cent of the population still unserved and to significantly reducing drop-out and repetition. The broader aim, however, is to bring educational development into harmony with economic and political development in order that students may be properly prepared to work in a modern economy and live in a democratic society.

China: In 1980, the State Council decreed that UPE should be achieved within the whole of China during the course of the decade. The Council recognized, however, that it would be impossible in a state as vast and populous as China, with a growing but still underdeveloped economy, to rely exclusively on governmental action to achieve this ambitious goal. Communities, factories and enterprises were, therefore, mobilized and responded vigorously to the government's appeal. While the drive for UPE was a national movement, the main responsibility for implementing it was local. The results were impressive, the enrolment ratio - which was already high - was increased by an additional seven per cent. The main effort, however, was focused on improving the quality of education. Old buildings were

repaired or replaced and a vast programme of new construction undertaken. Thus, even as school enrolment expanded, the amount of space per student was more than doubled. More than 1,000 million sets of chairs and desks were procured and enormous sums were spent on improving instructional and learning materials.

Teacher training was recognized as critical in improving educational quality and a major effort was made to train or re-train millions of teachers. Special attention was given to up-grading the qualifications of those semi-qualified teachers who were recruited from within communities to overcome teacher shortages during the phase of rapid educational expansion in the 1970s. These training efforts continue. At present, over one million future teachers are in training in over 3,000 institutions throughout China. Approximately ten per cent of these future teachers are from minority nationalities. In all, China has more than 4 1/2 million teachers, over 80 per cent of whom are graduates of teacher-training schools or senior secondary schools. An entire range of honours and incentives have been introduced to improve the status and conditions of teachers.

The scope of primary education in China is immense. There are 729,200 primary schools. Of the 99 million children in the 7 to 11 year age-group, over 97 million are enrolled in school: an enrolment ratio of 98 per cent for both sexes and 97 per cent for girls. Moreover, through strenuous efforts by schools and communities, the drop-out rate has been reduced to 2.2 per cent and the pass rate on examinations raised to an average on all subjects of over 85 per cent. Nearly 78 per cent of primary school students continue their studies in junior middle schools.

In the remaining years of the century, China will seek to include within its education system the two per cent of students as yet unserved. For this purpose, special support will be extended to underdeveloped regions of the country. Under the **Law of the Guarantee of the Handicapped**, special education will also be vigorously developed with the aim of including nearly all disabled children in school by the year 2000.

Chinese education is placing ever greater stress on the improvement of quality. The purpose of education is seen as enabling children to develop fully their talents and potential. Curriculum reforms and improved evaluation procedures are designed to encourage active learning, not passive acquisition of knowledge. To make active learning and child-centered approaches effective, a continuing investment will be made in teacher training and in further reduction of class size.

Early in the 21st century, education levels in China will be approaching those in the world's most industrialized countries. China's record of impressive progress appears to be due to three main factors: a **strong and sustained political commitment** to the development of education, **effective**

organization at all levels from the national to the local, and a **pragmatic and innovative approach to problem-solving.**

Egypt: The quest to establish Universal Primary Education in Egypt dates back to the Constitution of 1923. For 70 years, the country has struggled to make the right to education a reality. In recent years, these efforts have been given fresh and forceful impetus. During the 1990s, which have been proclaimed the National Decade of the Child, Egypt hopes to bring primary education within the reach of all its children. The strategy for educational reform defines education as a **human right** and a **basic necessity for the world of the future.** Egypt's primary education system is diverse, including government, religious and private schools.

The Egyptian Government recognizes that the national education system is beset by problems of both quantity and quality. As concerns quantity, Egypt is critically short of school buildings - only 30 percent of primary schools operate on a full-day basis. Many schools have double and, in certain cases, even triple shifts. Classes also tend to be large, an average of 43 students per class. There is as well a serious shortage of supplies and materials for teachers and students. Concerning quality, the challenge is to transform an educational system that has long emphasized rote memorization into one in which active learning, creativity and application of knowledge are the norm.

The basic objectives set for the primary education system are:

1. Preparing and developing citizens to adjust to the demands of modern society and to comprehend the religious, national and cultural dimensions of their identity.

2. Providing society with citizens who have mastered basic academic skills, with special emphasis on reading, writing and mathematics and the disciplines of the future (science, mathematics and languages).

3. Providing citizens with essential knowledge on health, nutrition, the environment and development-related issues.

4. Providing citizens with transferable skills, including analytic skills, critical thinking, scientific skills and problem-solving abilities which can enable them to respond to changing demands imposed by scientific and technological progress.

Over recent years, the curriculum has been extensively reformed to achieve these objectives. New content has been added and new approaches to the presentation of subject-matters tested. At the same time, authorities have recognized the need to slim down the curriculum which, over time, had become bloated and unfocused. In 1991-92, the Ministry of Education reduced the

content of the curriculum by 15 to 20 per cent to allow more time for active learning and for the mastery of essential tasks. With the same objective in mind, the school year has been increased from approximately 25 to 34 weeks.

The reform of the curriculum has been accompanied by a major effort at teacher training and re-training. Through collaboration with specialized university faculties, both the number and qualifications of future teachers have been improved. In addition, in-service programmes have been stepped up for teachers already in service. Finally, the inspectorate has been strengthened in order that it may lend greater professional support to teachers. These efforts are considered essential as educational reform depends, in the final analysis, upon the quality and motivation of the teachers who will implement it.

While gender disparities have been largely overcome in the more urban and developed parts of Egypt, they remain in rural areas, particularly in Upper Egypt. To remedy this problem, small schools are being sited in rural hamlets where the attendance of girls is low. As schools are brought closer to the home, female enrolment is increasing. An effort is also being made through curricular reforms to make education more relevant and interesting to rural girls.

Perhaps the major development in the promotion of education in Egypt is a fundamental change in perspective. Rather than being conceived as a social service, as was previously the case, education is now viewed as an essential investment in the nation's future, indeed as a matter of **national security**. This has given fresh impetus and new urgency to educational efforts. By the end of the century, Egypt intends to both fundamentally reform its education system and extend its coverage to all children.

India: The **National Policy on Education (NEP)**, adopted in 1986 and up-dated in 1992, constitutes a landmark in Indian education. Based on an in-depth review of the country's experience, situation and possibilities, and evolved through a consensual process - an essential procedure in a highly pluralistic democracy -, the NEP provides a comprehensive framework for the development of education up to the end of the century. While there have been earlier policy statements, NEP is distinct in that it is accompanied by a **Plan of Action** assigning specific responsibilities for organizing, implementing and financing the actions it proposes. NEP gives unqualified priority to basic education: primary schooling for children and literacy programmes for adults. Particular attention is given to the education of girls and disadvantaged groups.

In several respects, NEP marks a departure from previous policy. No longer is the focus exclusively or even predominantly on enrolment. Enrolment, retention and achievement together are seen to constitute a trinity: enrolment having meaning only to the extent that retention and achievement ensue. Under NEP, the

idealism of former policy statements is tempered with a realism derived from experience and careful analysis of the situation. It is, for example, conceded for the first time that schooling cannot reach all children in the near future. Millions of girls and working children will be excluded. Having acknowledged the problem, NEP proposes to address it with a **large and systematic programme of non-formal education** as an integral part of a strategy to provide basic education to all. Non-formal education programmes are designed to combine flexibility - enabling children to learn at their own pace - with a level of quality comparable to that of primary school.

Recognizing gender disparities as a critical challenge to the achievement of EFA, the policy calls for the integration of a gender dimension into all aspects of educational planning and implementation. The national education system, the policy holds, must play a positive interventionist role in promoting the education of girls and the empowerment of women. Curricula and textbooks are being re-designed to ensure that they present a positive image of women; training and orientation sessions for teachers, administrators and decision-makers are addressing gender issues and seeking ways of overcoming disparities. Finally, a wide range of efforts are being made to identify and remove obstacles to the enrolment and retention of girls in schools and non-formal programmes.

A fundamental premise of the new policy is that the pursuit of UPE (or UEE, as it is termed in India) is **contextual**. In so vast and varied a country, EFA cannot be dealt with in general, only in the particular. As a consequence, planning is increasingly being shifted from the state to the district and local levels. Related to this is the realization that, while financial resources are important and necessary, they are not sufficient to ensure success of educational programmes. A host of supporting measures is required: i.e. the mobilization of the community, the involvement of locally active NGOs, appropriate language and cultural policies, and a careful and respectful analysis of community values and attitudes toward education.

Current policy, for example, recognizes the negative impact that unattractive, dilapidated and ill-equipped schools have on community attitudes toward schooling: the implicit message these send is that education really does not matter. In response, a drive has been launched to improve the appearance and state of repair of school premises. Incentive schemes, such as school lunch programmes, have also been encouraged and are being widely implemented. In sum, in the pursuit of UPE the demand side of the equation is recognized to be every bit as important as the supply side. Studies conducted in India and elsewhere showing that access does not necessarily result in enrolment are empirical proof of this.

That India has made enormous progress in education is incontestable. The country is alive with projects, large and small, testing and implementing new approaches. That it continues to face enormous challenges in its quest to achieve EFA

is equally evident. There are an estimated 153 million Indian children between the ages of 6 and 14 years. For the entire elementary cycle (ages 6-14 years), the age-specific enrolment ratio is estimated to be over 80 per cent. This represents an impressive advance over the last decade. Yet, there are still over 28 million out-of-school children in the 6-14 age-group, over 14 million of whom are working children. Drop-out is also high: nearly half the children who enter class I drop out before reaching class V and two-thirds before class VIII. Improving quality is a matter of growing concern. **Minimum levels of learning (MLLs)** have been established for key subjects and extensive surveys of achievement conducted. Educators have found the results disappointing. Only a 'minuscule' percentage of students achieve 'mastery' at their particular grade level. This sense of disappointment with test results is, of course, a sentiment many countries, industrialized as well as developing, have experienced. Yet, these are positive signs. Progress requires a sense of problem and a sense of purpose. India is clearly demonstrating that it possesses both.

Indonesia: Education in Indonesia has been an integral part of the process of nation-building. As is the case with many former colonies, Indonesia's educational inheritance was meager. In 1940, for example, only 37 indigenous Indonesians graduated from the university. This, in a nation with a population then estimated at 70 million. The literacy rate at the time was below ten per cent. The importance of education was fully recognized by Indonesia's founding fathers who, in 1945, stipulated in the **Constitution** that *'every citizen shall have the right to obtain education, and the government shall establish and implement one national system of education to be regulated by law'*. This commitment was reiterated in the **Education Acts of 1950 and 1954**, but compulsory education could not be enforced until 1984 because of a shortage of school places. Beginning in 1973, the central government made funds available to local governments to build schools, recruit teachers and print new textbooks. During the ensuing decade, enrolment grew at a rate of more than eight per cent per year.

Primary education, of six years' duration, is provided through a **dual system**. Nearly 90 per cent of children attend the **Sekolah Dasar** which, while administered by regional and local governments, are required to meet standards set by the Ministry of Education and Culture relating to the curriculum and the qualifications of teachers. The **Madarasah Ibtidaiyah (MI)**, which are supervised by the Ministry of Religious Affairs, serve approximately 3 million students. These schools follow the curriculum of the Sekolah Dasar, but, in addition, offer special religious instruction. The primary curriculum, both in secular and religious schools, is deeply imbued with the state philosophy of **Pancasila**, whose principles include belief in a supreme God, democracy, social justice and national unity.

The Madarasah Ibtidaiyah are, in most instances, the successors to more traditional Koranic schools. The

transformation of Koranic schools into institutions offering a full programme of general education proved a challenging task. Providing a qualified teaching staff was at the root of the difficulty. The traditional teachers, while highly respected, were unprepared to teach general subjects and few among them had received teacher training of any kind. A solution was found in 1975 through an agreement whereby the Madarasahs adopted the curriculum of the Sekolah Dasar and the Ministry of Education and Culture, in return, undertook to supply the MI schools with teachers qualified to handle general education courses.

Girls make up 58 per cent of enrolment in the MI schools as compared to 48 per cent in the Sekolah Dasar. This reflects a desire on the part of parents with traditional values to send their daughters to religious institutions. Gender disparity, however, does not emerge as an issue in Indonesian education until the secondary levels, where girls constitute only 45 per cent of the enrolment. Virtually all girls attend primary school.

Indonesia presently has over 30 million primary school children with an annual intake of more than five million. Only a small minority of students in special situations remains beyond the reach of the school. Those not as yet enrolled are, in general, in difficult-to-reach areas. Even they, however, are served by 'visiting-teacher' and other special programmes. In brief, as a result of persistent efforts and creative approaches, access to education is no longer a serious problem in Indonesia.

The annual drop-out rate has in recent years varied between 4 and 5 per cent. In all, nearly 75 per cent of students complete the Sekolah Dasar and 68 per cent of them continue their studies at junior high-school level. Between now and the end of the century, it is intended to considerably increase the transition rate between primary and junior high school. The aim is to provide all children with a minimum of nine years of schooling in the 21st century.

As in other countries, improving the quality of education is a continuing challenge. A **five-point programme** was launched in 1991 to respond to this need. It sets higher qualification requirements for future teachers and provides for the re-training of 85 per cent of Indonesia's more than one million teachers. This will be accomplished both in the regular teacher-training colleges and, through an 'open university', by distance learning. **Curricular reforms** aimed at better adapting content to local needs and promoting active learning are also underway. A new system for producing and distributing textbooks is planned. The government is also experimenting with the development of teacher evaluation systems based on merit as well as on seniority.

In looking back over its record of educational achievements, Indonesia has every reason to be proud. Indeed, its progress is a kind of 'rags-to-riches' story. In less than half a century of independence, it has transformed education from the privilege of a tiny minority into a right enjoyed by nearly all.

Mexico: *'The main task in the years to come will be to ensure adequate educational provision, but the priority will be to achieve the educational standards required by society and the economy. If we lag behind in the revolution of knowledge, we will be cancelling out our future'.* With these words, from his inaugural address in 1988, President Carlos Salinas De Gortari launched an era of profound educational reform. In an era of austerity in public finance, education saw its budget increased by 86 per cent in real terms between 1988 and 1993, with basic education receiving the lion's share of the increase. In 1988, public expenditure on education was equivalent to 3.6 per cent of gross national product. By 1992, it had risen to 5.2 per cent of a considerably expanded GNP. But, while necessary to reform, money alone is insufficient. The three 'pivotal points' of Mexico's reform were: (i) reorganization of the education system; (ii) re-design of curriculum, contents and materials; and (iii) measures to increase the motivation and training of teachers. A **National Agreement for the Modernization of Basic Education**, setting forth the main lines of educational reform, was drawn up and signed before the President of the Republic by the federal and state governments and the National Union of Education Employees (SNTE).

The most fundamental aspect of the reform was the transfer of responsibility for the running of schools from the federal to the state government. This was an extremely complex undertaking as it involved, *inter alia*, the transfer of some 700,000 employees and the deeding over of more than 100,000 buildings to the states. In addition, the federal government undertook to provide sufficient resources to the states to enable them to improve the quality and expand the provision of education. In effect, the federal government did not relinquish its responsibility for education, but merely entered into a partnership with the states in order to provide educational services more effectively. These changes have, nonetheless, profoundly transformed the landscape of education in Mexico.

The revision of curricula was also a complex undertaking involving scores of partners and a lengthy process of consultation. Most of the basic education curricula in use in 1988 had originally been adopted in the 1960s. The underlying assumptions of the new curricula are that the foundation of basic education is reading, writing and mathematics, *'skills which, if firmly assimilated ... allow us to carry on learning throughout our lives and provide us with rational supports for thought'.* All children should also acquire an adequate knowledge of the natural and social environment in which they live as well as knowledge of themselves. To this end, health, nutrition, conservation of nature and notions regarding different forms of work are to be taught. Students should also gain an understanding of *'ethical principle and develop the skills which will prepare them to play a constructive and creative role in modern society'.* This implies knowing the history and laws of their own country and the rights and obligations that accompany citizenship. Basic education also seeks to impart cultural

appreciation and to mould the *'personality on values such as integrity, respect, confidence and solidarity, which are vital for peaceful, democratic and productive relations in society'*. Curriculum reform is being supported by a wide range of measures intended to provide improved textbooks and instructional materials and to create classroom environments conducive to active learning.

Mexico recognized that nothing is as essential to educational reform as a motivated and talented teaching force. Whatever is planned or proposed, it is up to teachers to make it work in classrooms around the nation. The reform aims both at providing improved pre-service and in-service training to future and serving teachers, and improving the status and benefits of the teaching profession. A searching review of teacher education is in process. Institutions were invited to put forward proposals which were then reviewed in 'think-tank' workshops by representatives of scientific, cultural and educational organizations and associations. Serving teachers have been offered a number of options for further education and training, many of which make extensive use of distance education. To date, over 850,000 teachers have been re-trained. In support of these efforts, 12 million books have been published and 1,100 teachers' centres established and equipped to receive and record televised teacher education programmes.

Yet, as important as training is, it was realized that such measures would be without great impact unless teacher motivation was also improved. Over the years, the salaries of Mexican teachers had been severely eroded by inflation. Correcting this has been by far the most costly part of the reform. During the last five years, teachers' salaries have been increased by 88 per cent in real terms. As a result, a primary school teacher now earns 3.3 times the minimum wage as compared with 1.6 times in 1988. Improved salaries are, however, only one point in a far-reaching programme intended to make teaching, at once, a more rewarding and a more demanding profession. The establishment of a teaching career scheme incorporating the concept of 'horizontal promotions' enables teachers both to gain more frequent promotions and to advance in their careers without having to leave the classroom for an administrative post. Special allowances have also been increased for teachers who serve in hardship areas. Finally, a new, more systematic and more objective procedure for assessing teacher performance has been established. Whereas promotion previously depended mainly on seniority, the new system places far greater emphasis upon classroom performance and qualifications.

Mexico has already extended access to most of its children. Many of those who fail to enter the education system, or drop out of it at an early age, can only be reached through special measures and approaches. A US$530 million **Programme to Combat Underachievement in Basic Education (PAREB)** has been launched, with the support of the World Bank, to improve education in disadvantaged areas. In 1992-1993, some 9,000 schools and 615,000 students benefited from PAREB. This programme gives

priority to primary education in rural and indigenous areas. Funding is used for producing bilingual educational materials and for building and equipping classrooms, offices and health centres. There is also a special government programme that produces books and other learning materials in eight indigenous languages in order to strengthen the cultural identity and values of children from minority groups.

In brief, Mexico is making a strenuous effort to ensure that its children do not lag behind in the revolution of knowledge. The nation has expressed its faith and invested its resources in the conviction that education is the force that will shape its future.

Nigeria: Faces the daunting challenge of expanding education on a shrinking national income, of having to do more with less. The oil boom which gave rise to ambitious development plans in all spheres in the 1970s has come to an end while the school-age population continues to increase at a rate of over 3 per cent per year. Nigeria, nonetheless, remains determined to provide all of its children with a full primary education of quality at the earliest possible date. To this end, five priority goals have been established:

1. increasing access to primary education for all Nigerian children;

2. equalizing access for both boys and girls, thus reducing gender disparities in enrolment;

3. ensuring access to basic education for hitherto underserved groups;

4. improving the quality of the education provided; and

5. maintaining a suitable learning environment to reduce wastage rates.

In 1992, Nigeria had an estimated 18.2 million children of primary-school age, 6-11 years, a number expected to increase by four million by the year 2000. A total of 14.8 million students were enrolled in primary schools. Thus, a minimum of some 3.5 million children remain outside the school system. However, as many of those enrolled are either over-aged or under-aged, the number of out-of-school children within the age-group is certainly considerably higher. Even with current enrolment, resources are seriously stretched. Teachers, classrooms, textbooks and learning materials are all in critically short supply. Nigeria estimates that over 100,000 additional teachers and classrooms would be required to achieve UPE. Quality is also a major concern. Teachers are a key factor in raising standards. But many of Nigeria's teachers are inadequately trained and their morale is low as a result of poor remuneration and difficult conditions of service, especially in rural areas. The situation,

the country report notes, presents a 'gloomy picture', but one which the government is determined to tackle.

The situation regarding education is, of course, far from being homogenous throughout the country. Certain areas, such as the North, have lagged behind the rest of the country in educational development for historical and socio-cultural reasons. The integration of Koranic schools, which are numerous in the North, into the national school system, is intended to reduce regional disparities. In general, education is better developed in cities than in rural areas, although the rapid migration into cities has strained resources even in urban areas. Overall, the enrolment of girls is lower than that of boys, but there is significant variation among the states. Educational coverage of particular groups, such as the country's six million nomads, is well below average. Of an estimated 1.8 million handicapped children of primary-school age, only about 14,000 receive some form of primary education.

Fortunately, there are also positive developments. Qualifications have been raised for newly recruited teachers and serving teachers are being re-trained. Strenuous efforts are being made to reduce gender disparities. It has, for example, been made illegal to remove girls from primary school for marriage. The recruitment of female teachers for primary schools has been stepped up. Federal and state ministries of education have established women education branches to promote enrolment and retention of girls. The Federal Ministry has produced a national blueprint, or plan of action, for promoting the education of women and girls. Innovative programmes have been launched to reach nomads and fishermen. The **Nigerian Educational Research and Development Council (NERDC)** is actively engaged in curriculum research and the development of improved instructional materials and textbooks. To finance these developments, an **Education Tax Law** has been passed, which imposes a 2 per cent tax on the profits of corporations. In brief, Nigeria is facing the challenge of extending and improving education and has resolved to use *'innovative, even unorthodox strategies'* to reach the targets it has set itself.

These targets call for the country to increase enrolment annually by about 800,000 students in order to achieve a 100 percent **gross** enrolment ratio by the year 2000. Each year 20,000 classrooms are to be added, especially in areas where access to education is limited. Efforts to promote equalization of access, especially through the elimination of gender disparities, will be intensified. Quality is being improved by up-grading teacher competence and morale, curriculum reforms and the provision of a more adequate supply of instructional materials. School inspection services are being strengthened as a means for lending increased professional support to teachers. These are ambitious targets which, if achieved, will have an important impact.

The difficulties that Nigeria has encountered during the past decade have hammered home the message that a nation's only

real and reliable wealth is in the talents, commitment and cohesion of its peoples. Hardships have therefore served only to strengthen Nigeria's resolve to create an education system which is *'functional, universal and of quality'*.

Pakistan: Education in Pakistan is increasingly a focus of attention and concern. The *'gloomy situation'* of education with widening gaps between town and countryside, male and female, *'calls for revolutionary and firm measures'*, for the mobilization of the needed human and material resources to grapple effectively with the enormous challenge of providing basic education to all. In particular, the improvement of primary education *'which yields the highest rate of return'* must be a priority. In brief, as these quotes from the country report suggest, the government views the development of education as a matter of utmost urgency. *'The challenges are as numerous as the inadequacies of the system'*.

There are 124,000 primary schools in Pakistan, including mosque schools, providing education to children between the ages of 5 to 9 years. The establishment and management of schools is a responsibility of the provincial governments, while the curriculum is prescribed by federal authorities in consultation with the provinces. Only approximately one-third of school-age children are presently enrolled. The enrolment ratio, however, varies considerably among provinces and between urban and rural areas. The highest rate, an estimated 53 per cent, is in the urban areas of Punjab. The lowest rate, about 10 per cent, is in rural Balochistan. The enrolment of girls is markedly inferior to that of boys in the rural areas of all provinces, ranging from a high of about 21 per cent in the Punjab to a low of 9 per cent in Balochistan. Drop-out rates are of *'fearful'* proportions, especially in rural schools and among girls. The conditions of schools are extremely poor. Indeed, nearly one-quarter of all schools are classified as *'shelterless'*. More than one-third of schools consist of a single classroom accommodating all five grades.

Pakistani educators are asking themselves how matters arrived at their present unsatisfactory state. There would appear to be many contributing factors. The inheritance from colonial times was small. In 45 years of independence, Pakistan has increased the number of primary schools fourteenfold and multiplied enrolment eleven times. But this has not been enough given the high rates of population growth. While education has figured prominently in development plans, implementation has been weak. *'The checkered and uneventful history of five year plans'* has brought to light shortcomings and a tendency to set unrealistic and unattainable goals. Compared to many countries, there has also been serious under-investment in education and, more particularly, in primary education. Constancy of purpose and direction has also been wanting. In 1972, for example, the Government nationalized private schools and then, in 1979, again sought to encourage the establishment of private institutions, which now constitute 14 percent of all schools, to expand the

availability of school places. The lessons of the past point to the need for greater realism and continuity in future educational policies.

The **National Education Policy, 1992**, expresses the government's resolve to reinvigorate and intensify its struggle to achieve UPE - *'a national goal which has been eluding the nation so far'*. Among the goals set by NEP are the following:

1. Universalizing primary education, eliminating drop-out and fulfilling the basic learning needs by the year 2002;

2. Improving the quality of education, by reasserting the role of the teacher in the teaching-learning process, modernizing curricula and textbooks, improving physical facilities, and introducing activity-oriented new sciences at all levels of school education;

3. Inviting the private sector to participate in education programmes;

4. Giving teachers a prominent status in society, but, at the same time, subjecting them to accountability-based performance evaluation;

In addition to these goals, the **8th Five Year Plan** calls for the enactment and enforcement of legislation for compulsory school attendance in areas where schools are available within a reasonable distance and for the removal of gender and rural-urban disparities.

The underdeveloped state of primary education in Pakistan has led governmental and non-governmental organizations alike to the conclusion that *'business-as-usual'* approaches are incapable of solving the problem of access within the coming decade. In response, a considerable number of **innovative projects and programmes** have been developed. The revival of **Mosque Schools** is one such 'innovation'. Every village in Pakistan has its mosque which, in earlier times, was a place not only of prayer, but also of religious and cultural training. The revival of these schools, as places of secular as well as religious learning, has met with a strong popular response. Parents who have been unwilling to send their daughters to school find no difficulty in sending them to study in a sacred institution. The fact that the mosque schools operate year-round, following the rhythm of the community rather than that of the academic year, has also favoured attendance and achievement. Mosque schools are spreading nation-wide.

Home schools have been another major success. These schools began modestly in the Sind in 1980 to assist children who did not have access to schools. Each home school consists of 25 to 30 pupils, usually of primary school age. Their schedules are flexible and usually limited to two to three hours per day. Such schools are normally organized by NGOs and run by a committee of community members. They use regular primary school textbooks.

It is estimated that some 500 home schools are presently in operation in the Karachi area. Most were started by women's organizations and, in total, enroll an estimated 11,000 girls.

Following the World Conference on Education for All (1990), Pakistan resolved to make a new beginning in its quest for UPE. The task before it is enormous. Yet, perhaps for the first time, it is being tackled with a combination of determination, realism and creativity that promises to produce favourable results. Education is no longer perceived as the assignment of a ministry; it is recognized to be the mission of the nation: its government, its secular and religious institutions, and, above all, its people.

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Lessons of Experience: Indeed, the above accounts certainly contain scores of lessons, most of them applicable uniquely to the context or situation in which they arose. But are there not also some principles of more general applicability? Four lessons drawn from the review of national experiences follow. Attentive readers, it is hoped, will find other lessons relevant to their particular situations and needs.

1. The rewards of persistence: Those countries that have achieved the highest degree of success in advancing toward EFA are precisely those that have pursued that goal most relentlessly and persistently. In the race to EFA, it is the qualities of the tortoise that are triumphant steadfastness. The hares learn to their sorrow that on-again, off-again efforts do not pay off.

2. Strength in unity: In several of the cases examined, potentially divisive issues arose. A struggle between religious and secular schools could, for example, have arose, as it did in parts of Europe. Through wisdom and compromise, this was avoided. Room was found for all under the 'big tent' of EFA and potential adversaries converted into future partners.

3. Division of labour: Is EFA achieved by remote control from the capital city or by 'spontaneous combustion' all over the country? The answer, of course, is 'both' and 'neither'. Central control is incapable of responding to the countless questions and problems which inevitably arise in implementing large scale actions, while local initiative is unlikely to occur on the required scale. There has to be a division of labour. The centre has to articulate the mission of the nation and local authorities have to implement it. This can only be achieved through an interactive process. The national vision has to be shared by local authorities and must be relevant to local

realities and aspirations. Local authorities also have to be able to count on national support and, where necessary, resources to overcome exceptional problems. As Jomtien emphasized, UPE can only be achieved through effective partnerships.

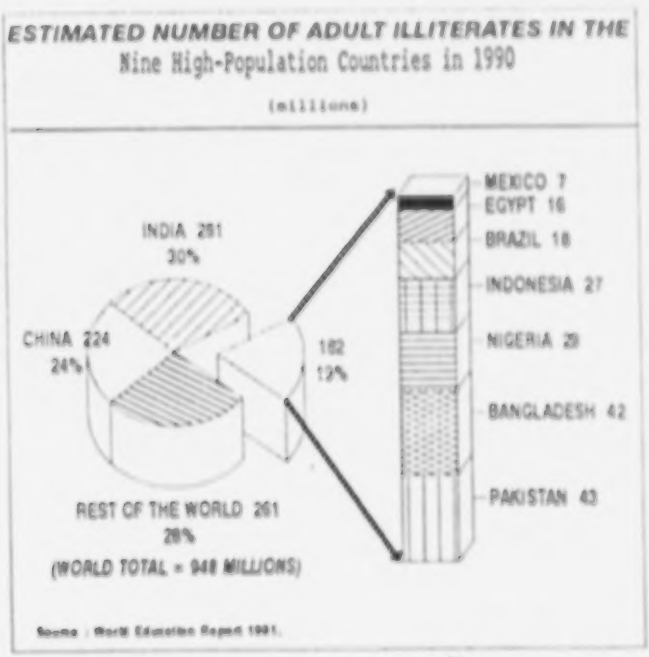
4. Fixed purposes, flexible means: Experience suggests that there should be not only clarity regarding the aims and priorities of EFA policies and strategies, but, in so far as possible, consensus as well. However, if the destination has to be clearly specified, the route to it should be left to those at all levels who will be guiding the voyage. Much will depend upon the 'season' and the 'topography'. No opportunity should be missed to speed progress towards the goal, and no unnecessary obstacles encountered. While it can be helpful to be dogmatic about purposes and goals, it is usually wise to be pragmatic and flexible about how they are to be achieved. Those in charge of EFA should be encouraged to be entrepreneurial and imaginative in finding their own routes to the destinations that have been fixed by them or for them, as the case may be.

VI. Programmes for Adolescents and Adults

1. Identification and Analysis of Issues

The issue of adult (15 years+) illiteracy, as Figure 7 reveals, looms large in all nine countries. Moreover, unlike the universalization of primary education, which with serious effort and commitment could be substantially achieved within a decade, adult illiteracy is likely to remain an immense problem for decades to come. Indeed, in the projections prepared by UNESCO in 1990 on the basis of trends observed during the 1980s, it was foreseen that the number of illiterates in the nine countries would actually increase by about eight million by the year 2000. This projection, of course, did not take account of the excellent progress made in increasing the coverage of primary education in the early 1990s. Nonetheless, the full impact of recent improvements in reducing the number of adult illiterates will not be felt for some time. If progress continues, it will prevent the number of illiterates from growing, but will not, by itself, reduce it greatly. Indeed, only curative action - literacy work among adults - can reduce the number of illiterates significantly within the next decade. Since little emphasis is given to literacy work among adults over 45 years of age - roughly half of all illiterates -, the problem of adult literacy can be expected to recede very gradually. Increasing longevity will, in fact, slow the rate at which illiteracy declines.

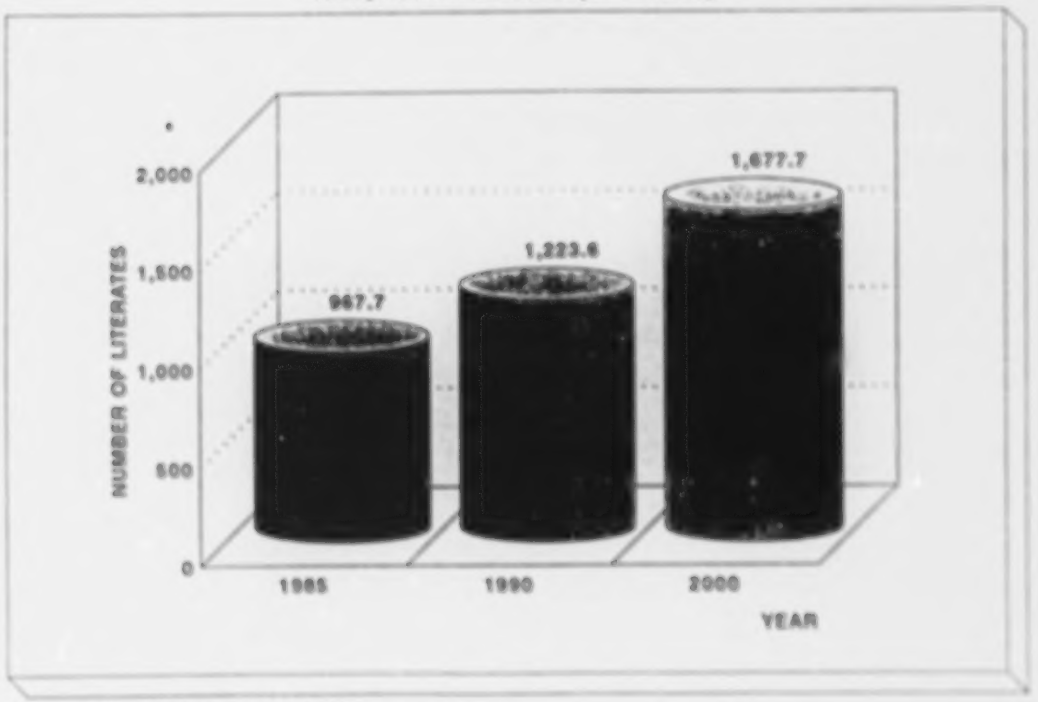
Figure 7



Yet significant progress is, in fact, being made, as Figure 8 reveals. This figure depicts the rapid growth in the number of literates - a total of 710 million in the nine countries - and the decline in the rate of illiteracy by 14 points, from 41 to 27 per cent, projected to occur between 1985 and the year 2000. The explanation of these increases is, of course, the impact of population growth combined with the spread of primary education. In several countries, literacy programmes for adolescents and adults are also making an important contribution. In China, as noted below, during the last 40 years, 180 million adults have been made literate.

Figure 8

ESTIMATED TOTAL LITERATES IN THE NINE HIGH POPULATION COUNTRIES 1985, 1990 AND 2000 (MILLIONS)



Source : UNESCO Office of Statistics, 1993.

To the traditional mission of literacy programmes, that of serving the unschooled, is being added the newer role of completing the work that primary schools have begun. In the nine countries, there are tens of millions of semi-literate and newly-literate young women and men. They include the drop-outs and even many of those who have completed primary education. They are literate in the narrow sense of that term, but their mastery of basic knowledge and essential learning skills is frail. They are ill prepared to compete in the labour market where the skills

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that count are not so much basic literacy as the 'functional literacy' standards set by employers.

These semi-literates and newly literates, most of whom are in their teens and twenties, are a target group of growing importance for adult education. They are usually the most motivated group. They have long lives before them. Their aspirations are high, often unrealistically so. They are in the workforce, or seeking to enter it. They are or soon will be parents. For all these reasons, they are prime candidates for further education. Whether these programmes are called literacy or adult education, it is important that they put due stress on the development of fundamental learning skills and basic knowledge: upon completing the learning begun in the primary school. Research demonstrates that this outcome of education is both the most generally applicable and the most easily transferable from one situation to another. Programmes will, however, usually be more appealing to such learners if they also teach vocational skills tailored to employment, including self-employment, within the community or locality. Indeed, as the experience of several countries demonstrates, vocational education programmes offer one of the most motivating contexts in which instruction in literacy and numeracy skills can be offered.

Gender disparity: is even more marked in statistics on adult literacy than it is in those concerning primary education. Table 8 depicts the situation in the nine countries. In view of this glaring inequality and the extremely important role that women play as family decision-makers, programmes for women should be accorded the highest priority. Because women have had fewer educational opportunities than men, they are often particularly motivated to participate in adult programmes. The content of such programmes differs considerably from country to country. Experience has shown that young women are often as interested in vocational education as are men. Courses teaching carpentry, metal work, agriculture and similar skills have proven highly popular and useful in many countries. In societies where women are deeply engaged in commercial activities, an emphasis on numeracy is often the most appreciated part of a programme, especially if it focuses upon problems and operations frequently encountered in daily life. Elements concerned with health, sanitation, nutrition and family planning are also of relevance and interest to women. The teens and twenties are the peek reproductive years. Information on how to plan, space and care for children is vital to this age-group.

Table 8

ADULT ILLITERACY RATES BY SEX IN 1990

	MEN	WOMEN
BANGLADESH	52.9	78.0
BRAZIL	17.5	20.2
CHINA	15.9	32.0
EGYPT	37.1	66.2
INDIA	38.2	66.3
INDONESIA	15.9	32.0
MEXICO	10.5	14.9
NIGERIA	37.7	60.5
PAKISTAN	52.7	78.9

* *Compendium of Statistics on Literacy, 1991 Edition, UNESCO.*

Family literacy programmes have proven to be extremely popular and successful in many countries, including Indonesia and Mexico. The goal of these programmes is to offer parents instruction in how to care for and educate their children. While the pattern varies considerably, such courses usually provide instruction in areas such as health, nutrition, child development and how to prepare children to succeed in school, as well as literacy instruction for the parents, usually the mother. Many programmes offer child-care services as well in order that the parents may be better able to pursue their studies. Programmes of this type are one example of the manner in which well-planned adult programmes can contribute to progress toward the goal of UPE.

In brief, programmes for adolescents and adults have to be conceived, planned and implemented within the framework of a wider EFA strategy. Their role is to prepare the ground for successful primary schooling of children through parental education, to complete the task of basic education begun in the school with programmes for adolescents and young adults that develop and apply their knowledge and skills, and to contribute to the emergence of a literate society through literacy and post-literacy action.

The immense challenge of combating adult illiteracy will remain for decades to come and will have to receive continuing attention. But, with the progressive achievement of UPE, the demand for a wide range of adult education programmes can be

expected to grow enormously, as it has already done in China, Egypt, India, Indonesia, Mexico and elsewhere. Basic education, as the World Conference on Education for All emphasized, should not be conceived as an end in itself, but as a foundation for lifelong learning.

2. Summary of Action for Adolescents and Adults

Bangladesh: The 1991 census placed the adult **literacy** rate at just under 35 per cent, 44 per cent for men and 23 per cent for women. A large-scale literacy effort was launched in 1980 and reportedly achieved positive results. Nonetheless, it was abandoned in 1982. Since then, adult literacy efforts have been sporadic and on a modest scale. Nearly all on-going literacy work is conducted by NGOs, much of it dedicated to the education of women. This is an obvious priority given that the literacy rate for women is only half of that for men.

Presently, proposals for reviving adult literacy efforts are under consideration. One proposal calls for the setting up of a national academy of non-formal education to conduct research on and produce materials for adult literacy programmes. Another pending proposal would establish a directorate of adult education that would plan, implement and monitor adult and non-formal education programmes. Perhaps, however, the main need is not for the creation of superstructures, but for ensuring action in the field. To meet this need, a proposal presently under discussion would create a network of adult education committees at all levels to operate literacy programmes and rural libraries. Bangladesh's professed goal is to increase its literacy rate to 62 per cent in the year 2000. For the time being, it is depending mainly upon the expansion of the primary education system to achieve this objective.

Brazil: is engaged in a critical review of and reflection upon its programmes for youth and adults. The need for such programmes is evident given that one-third of youth between the ages of 15 and 17 years have never attended school at all or dropped out in the first years of primary school. In the 18-24 age-group, the situation is even more serious: 45 per cent have less than a full primary education. In the 1960s and early 1970s, mass literacy campaigns and generic training programmes were considered the way to cope with illiteracy and under-education. The results, however, proved disappointing. Subsequently, for a brief and enthusiastic period, tele-education was regarded as almost a panacea for serving youth and adults. While distance education clearly has a role to play in a nation of continental proportions, by itself, it cannot provide an answer. Presently, programmes for youth and adults are seen as means for ensuring the right to basic education. It is proving difficult, however, to meet the vast and varied volume of demand

caused by the lack of opportunities to pursue education in childhood. The need to create a special system of education to serve youth and adults is also proving problematic. Brazil's ten-year Education for All plan sets the objective of expanding *'educational services provided to youth and adults, prioritizing the 15-to-29-year age bracket, offering basic education opportunities equivalent to four grades to 3.7 million illiterates and 4.6 million undereducated individuals'*.

China notes that *'literacy work has achieved tremendous success, a total of 180 million illiterates and semi-literates having been made literate'*. The emphasis on literacy work dates back to the very origins of the People's Republic and, indeed, pre-dates its establishment. This emphasis continues. In 1988, the State Council issued **Regulations on Literacy Work** setting new strategies and priorities in the light of China's current development needs.

The scale of adult education in China is impressive. There are 155,000 adult primary schools with an enrolment of 8.5 million served by 700,000 teachers. Included in this total are over 5.6 million farmers enrolled in 110,000 literacy classes. There are, in addition, 228,000 cultural and technical training schools for adults with an enrolment of over 30 million. Yet, the need for literacy efforts continues. There are an estimated 180 million illiterates and semi-illiterates in the adult population, 61 million of them between the ages of 15 and 45 years. Over 90 per cent of illiterates live in rural areas; women represent 70 per cent of the total.

China attributes the success of its literacy efforts to five factors:

1. Effective leadership at all levels, especially by those responsible in townships and villages.

2. The conduct of promotion and publicity activities: *'without the support of society and the sincere participation of illiterates, success is impossible'*.

3. The integration of literacy instruction with training in practical skills. *'Literacy education in China has changed from the model of the 1950s, focused only on learning to read and write, through the addition of content linked to production and daily life'*.

4. An effective system of assessment linked to the issuance of literacy certificates to those able to pass required tests.

5. The linkage of literacy and post-literacy to the universalization of primary education. The national literacy strategy can be summed up as: *'prevention, eradication and amelioration'*.

Egypt: Government efforts to combat adult illiteracy in Egypt date back nearly half a century. Despite some successes, however, illiteracy continues to be a major problem. As in other countries, this is in large measure the result of population growth. While the rate of illiteracy among adults (15 years+) has declined from over 85 per cent in 1937 to 49 per cent in 1986, the number of illiterates rose during the same period from 9.8 million to 17.2 million. Illiteracy is unevenly distributed. In 1986, the literacy rate for women was 38 per cent as compared to 62 per cent for men. Higher than average rates of illiteracy also prevail in rural areas, especially in Upper Egypt.

Egypt is now engaged in a serious effort to reduce illiteracy. A **National Plan of Action** has been developed, covering the period 1990-1999. Key elements of the Plan are:

1. development of linkages between adult education and the national development plan;

2. according special attention to rural areas (especially hamlets) and women;

3. development of a democratic environment encouraging mobilization of efforts throughout the country.

The aims of the Plan are the elimination of illiteracy in the 15-30 age-group and its reduction in the population over 35 years of age. An **Agency for the Eradication of illiteracy and Adult Education** has been established to oversee the programme; implementation has been decentralized to the governorates.

Egypt's approach to combating illiteracy involves both preventive and curative measures. The expansion of schooling, especially in disadvantaged areas, is seen to provide a first line of defense. But, with more than 8 million illiterates in the 15 to 35 age-group, adult literacy programmes are evidently essential. While Egypt has witnessed many endeavours to tackle its massive problem of illiteracy, the present programme differs from previous efforts in that it enjoys the strong support of the national leadership which views its success as a national priority.

India: claims the 'dubious distinction' of leading the world in the number of illiterates. It also has a vast and rich experience in literacy work upon which to draw. The **National Literacy Movement (NLM)**, established on the basis of a critical review of earlier experience, provides technical support and leadership in a campaign targeting the estimated 121 million illiterates in the 15 to 35 age-group. The policy of the NLM has been strongly influenced by the success of the mass literacy campaign launched in the Ernakulam district of Kerala in January 1989. This highly successful undertaking was the precursor to some 175 **Total Literacy Campaigns (TLCs)** that have been conducted to date in 212 districts of India. The TLCs are characterized

as *'area-specific, time-bound, volunteer-based, cost-effective and outcome oriented'*. Social mobilization is the key to their success. At present, an estimated 31 million learners in the 9 to 45 age-range are engaged in campaigns throughout India. They are assisted by nearly 4 million volunteers. The aim is to extend the TLC approach to 100 million learners in 345 districts.

An appraisal of these campaigns notes that a strength of the TLCs is *'that it has proved that learners, despite age and disability, despite social and cultural heterogeneity, despite class, caste and gender divides, can learn with self-confidence, joy and excitement. They can see for themselves the pace and progress of learning. They can retain and apply the benefits of learning to real life situations. Campaigns for total literacy have, in this sense, promoted social and emotional integration. They have also promoted linguistic integration and communal harmony. The teaching-learning process in the campaigns has created and reinforced an awareness of needs, rights and obligations. This awareness has manifested itself in enrolment and retention of children in the school system, immunization of pregnant mothers and children, health, hygiene, environmental conservation, ... small family norm, etc. Yet another strength of the campaign is that women are participating in the teaching-learning process in much larger number and with much greater enthusiasm than men. They have become more vocal, more articulate and more assertive of their needs than ever before'*.

While the TLC movement is at the centre of India's literacy efforts, experience has taught Indians the importance of follow-up or post-literacy. The danger of mass campaigns based on social mobilization is that their results, while impressive, may prove ephemeral if opportunities and incentives to continue to read and learn are not provided. While different models and approaches are being tested, the overall strategy is to establish learning groups and centres that can serve as 'information windows' for providing materials on health, agriculture, family planning and development and training activities within the district. In brief, India is coming to grip with its massive problem of adult illiteracy and doing so in a way that recognizes adult literacy as an essential element in a wider EFA movement which, in turn, is part and parcel of overall national development efforts.

Indonesia: The expansion of primary and non-formal education has had a significant impact on the incidence of illiteracy. In 1980, it was estimated that there were 30 million illiterates of ten years of age or older, 29 per cent of the population in the age-group. In 1990, the number of illiterates aged 10+ had declined to 21.5 million and the rate of illiteracy to 16 per cent. Women illiterates outnumber men by 2 to 1; 5 out of every six illiterate Indonesians live in rural areas.

The 8.5 million illiterates between the ages of 10 and 44 years are the target of Indonesia's literacy efforts. Illiteracy in this age-group was reduced by nearly half between

1980 and 1990, with the greatest progress being made among women. Overall literacy rates in 1990 were estimated at 89 per cent for women and 95 per cent for men. It is planned to virtually eliminate illiteracy within the 10 to 44 age-group by the year 2000.

Indonesia has given considerable attention to continuing education, particularly by developing non-formal education equivalency programmes. The so-called **Packet A** programmes prepare learners to take the equivalency examination for elementary education. The more recently developed **Packet B** materials prepare learners for the equivalency examination for junior high school. A wide variety of learning materials have also been developed for post-literacy income-generating programmes. Indonesia's efforts in post-literacy and continuing education are widely recognized as innovative and effective and have been honoured with a UNESCO international literacy prize.

The rapid changes in the job market have increased the demand for continuing education at all levels. While originally developed for drop-outs from the primary school, programmes are now demanded by graduates from the primary, secondary and even tertiary levels. This transformation of adult education from a preoccupation with literacy work to a broader concern with many forms and levels of education is one that other countries can expect to experience as EFA efforts raise the educational levels of their populations.

Mexico: According to the Mexican census of 1990, there are 6,161,000 illiterate people over the age of 15 years, representing 12.4 per cent of the adult population. The government has undertaken to reduce this figure by one-third by 1994 and has provided additional assistance to those states with the highest illiteracy rates to meet this goal.

The **National Institute of Adult Education**, the service responsible for promoting adult literacy, operates three distinct Spanish-language programmes: one for rural areas, another for urban populations and a third aimed at adolescents. The first two programmes, in addition to being offered in centres, are broadcast by radio. In addition, a major effort is being made in the area of post-literacy or follow-up. Numerous booklets have been published dealing with a variety of subjects, including health, nutrition, environment and housing. In addition, communities have been provided with mimeographs that are used to produce local newsletters in order to permit learners to express themselves as well as to receive information. Literacy programmes are also operated in 34 indigenous languages.

Adult education in Mexico, of course, extends far beyond adult literacy. Programmes allowing adults to earn school equivalency certificates at both the primary and the secondary levels are widely offered. In addition, a wide range of vocational and professional courses is available. Many courses combine practical instruction in the work-places with theoretical

training in schools or institutes. The re-training of adults has become a vital need as a result of the rapid modernization of the Mexican economy.

Nigeria: *'Each one teach one, or fund the teaching of one'* is the slogan and strategy with which Nigeria is seeking to revitalize its literacy efforts. It is acknowledged by the government that on-going literacy programmes are *'making little impact on the problem'*. In the period 1986-1990, literacy programmes enrolled a total of only 3.4 million learners, of whom fewer than two million earned certificates. In a nation with an estimated illiteracy rate of nearly 40 per cent and an illiterate adult population estimated at 35 million, these efforts are clearly insufficient to meet the goal Nigeria has set itself: reducing the rate of illiteracy among adults to 20 per cent by the year 2000. It is projected that 26 million adults will have to become literate before the end of the century to achieve this goal. Nigeria's task in overcoming illiteracy is enormously complicated by the fact that 40 per cent of its children are not in school - either having never enrolled or having dropped out. As a result, each year the ranks of the illiterates are swelled as unschooled children enter adulthood.

Illiteracy rates for women lag some 25 percentage points behind those for men. Moreover, although the situation has improved in recent years, women still make up less than 40 per cent of the enrolment in literacy classes. The impact of the **Better Life Programme** for rural women, providing training in literacy and functional skills through multipurpose centres, appears to be responsible for the greater interest women have shown in literacy courses in recent years. Women and out-of-school girls are identified as key target groups for future functional literacy efforts.

Nigeria views the future development of its literacy programmes with cautious optimism. Over the past decade, a number of conditions necessary for launching programmes on a larger scale have been fulfilled:

- staff have been trained on a large scale;
- teaching/learning materials have been developed in major languages;
- post-literacy programmes have been prepared, offering instruction in popular practical skills: book-keeping, health, nutrition, agriculture, food processing and storage, home management, cookery, crafts, carpentry, plumbing, weaving, and arts and crafts; and
- flexible calendars and class schedules have been developed to enable teaching and training activities to be better fitted into the lives of learners.

The ultimate success of the programme will depend, however, upon efficient social mobilization capable of making literacy teaching and learning a strongly felt moral duty. If this can be achieved, Nigeria's literacy activities will be given fresh impetus and purpose.

Pakistan: Adult literacy work in Pakistan is largely in the hands of NGOs and is conducted on a relatively modest scale. The Government is fully conscious of the serious situation regarding adult illiteracy - only an estimated 34 per cent of the adult population and only 16 per cent of women are literate -, but resources are limited and a decision has been taken to make primary education 'the cutting edge' of EFA strategy: preventive measures being the first line of defense in reducing illiteracy. Selected adult literacy activities will also be supported, especially for women.

The government hopes to encourage the private sector, NGOs and communities to play a more active role in the promotion of literacy programmes. The establishment of foundations which would be empowered to make matching grants of public funds to those conducting approved educational programmes is under consideration. An example of the type of innovative programme the government hopes to see developed and spread throughout the country is the **Female Quranic Literacy Project**. This project builds upon the desire of parents to have their daughters taught to read the Holy Quran. As a result, an estimated 41 per cent of women are able to read holy scripture whereas only 16 per cent can read secular texts. Given that the Arabic script in which the Quran is written is similar to the script used for writing Urdu, the national language, the Government is testing an approach in 200 centres whereby Quranic schools would also teach secular literacy to adolescents and adults. Approaches such as this, which build upon existing community institutions, have the potential of reaching large numbers at low cost.

Pakistan has set the objective of raising its literacy rate to 70 per cent by the year 2000. The government recognizes that this is an enormous challenge, one which may well be beyond its reach. A more limited goal for the next two to three years might be to develop and test effective and economic approaches for launching large-scale programmes, when additional resources become available.

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Lessons of Experience: There are many lessons and conclusions that might be drawn from the foregoing summaries. Here are three:

1. It is adolescents and young adults who are the target group for most of the programmes discussed above. In Brazil, the age-group 15 to 29 is the focus; in other countries, it is the group 15 to 35 or 15 to 45. While motivated participants of older ages should not be excluded, experience demonstrates that young learners are usually the most highly motivated. Hence, in a situation where resources are limited, a focus on the younger age-group, especially on young women, is a logical choice.

2. As concerns the content of programmes, a progressive shift can be noted from 'pure' literacy to programmes in which literacy and numeracy are part of a wider curriculum that includes 'functional elements' such as skills training. Such programmes tend to be more motivating for many learners. Experience would suggest, however, that 'functionality' should be broadly interpreted to include the cultural as well as the economic. The key point is not that this or that training be provided, but that programmes be designed to respond to the interests and needs of learners.

3. Experience also suggests that literacy, and educational efforts in general, are more likely to succeed as part of a wider movement of mobilization, empowerment and reform than in static social environments. This is especially true of programmes for women. Motivation for education is highest when new opportunities and possibilities are emerging and literacy and adult education are seen as necessary means for playing a new and more fulfilling role in a changing society. For these same reasons, as both historical and contemporary experiences attest, adult literacy work has often been an important factor in preparing the ground for the spread of schooling. It constitutes a powerful demonstration of society's commitment to learning as a force of progress and change.

VII. Early Childhood Care and Education

1. Identification and Analysis of Issues

The World Declaration on Education for All notes that *'learning begins at birth'*. This, it adds, *'calls for early childhood care and initial education'* which can be provided through *'arrangements involving families, communities, or institutional programmes, as appropriate'*. This conclusion reflects a growing body of findings demonstrating the fundamental importance of the first years of life - both within the womb and outside of it - in the development of children. Failure to respond to the nutritional or health needs of the young child may cause irreparable neurological damage. The first two years of life are a critical stage in the development of the brain and, hence, play a crucial role in determining the educational destiny of the child. Parents and family members need to be empowered with knowledge and skills to understand and serve the development needs of children.

The World Conference did not seek to prescribe how childhood care and initial education were to be provided, knowing arrangements would differ enormously between and within countries. Traditionally, institutionalized pre-school programmes have been costly and aimed at serving the better-off members of society, not the disadvantaged. It may be difficult to justify the growth of such programmes in countries where millions of children are unserved by primary education. The need, however, is **not** for costly programmes, but for the provision of essential services and assistance. To meet this need, an effort is being made in a number of countries to institute low-cost, often non-formal, programmes for disadvantaged children. The aim of these programmes is to promote health and nutrition and provide the stimulation and experience that will prepare children to succeed in school.

The need for such programmes is evidently great. Their establishment is often a response to the inability of the primary school to serve the most needy children. Non-enrolment, drop-out and low achievement are often the result of health and nutritional as well as cultural and social problems. Early childhood care and education seek to prevent these difficulties from arising. The growth of pre-school programmes is usually fastest in those countries in which the main challenge is no longer that of accommodating the majority of children, who are already in school, but that of enrolling the final ten to twenty per cent of hard-to-serve children. Research demonstrates that children who have received some form of pre-school care are more likely to be enrolled and retained in school than are students from the same social milieu who have not had the benefit of pre-school programmes. Hence, properly conceived low-cost programmes of early childhood care should be seen not as a

diversion of resources from primary education, but as a complementary investment necessary to ensure the enrolment of children from disadvantaged backgrounds.

2. Summary of Action for Early Childhood Care and Education

The nine countries differ considerably in the provision they make for **Early Childhood Care and Education (ECCE)**. They differ as well in the priority assigned to the future development of programmes in this area. **Brazil** views early childhood education as an integral part of its strategy to meet the overall needs of children. At present, government-assisted programmes serve fewer than 20 per cent of eligible children. As part of its EFA strategy, Brazil will endeavour both to extend the coverage of programmes for children between birth and six years, and to improve their quality. Many existing programmes are characterized as little more than *'depositories for children'*. Ideally, such programmes should provide comprehensive care designed to meet the educational, health and developmental needs of the child.

Early childhood education is nearly universal in the large and medium-sized cities of **China**. In the country-side, some 60 per cent of children are estimated to attend a kindergarten or pre-school programme in the year before enrolling in primary school. In the future, greater attention will be given to seeing that state educational guidelines are observed, management strengthened and the contents and orientation of programmes revised in order to improve quality.

Egypt's new educational policy places great emphasis on the development of early childhood education as a means of overcoming disparities in home environments. While, at present, only a small percentage of students are accommodated in government pre-school programmes, future plans call for the addition of two classes to the basic education cycle. Under this proposed arrangement, children would enter a pre-school programme at the age of four, which would prepare them for entry into primary school at the age of six. A **National Conference on Development of Curricula in Basic Education**, held in February 1993, gave special attention to the kindergarten curriculum. Details of a comprehensive plan to develop early childhood education are presently being worked out by the Government.

In **India**, the main instrument for early childhood care and development is the **Integrated Child Development Service (ICDS)**, which in 1992-1993 covered some 15 million children. The target populations for ICDS activities include children of slum dwellers, working children, the sons and daughters of landless labourers, tribal children and other living in disadvantaged

situations. A particular emphasis is placed on reaching the **girl child**. In addition to health care and nutrition, ICDS centres provide opportunities for structured and unstructured play, and a variety of learning experiences designed to promote the social, emotional, mental, physical and aesthetic development of the child. ICDS is experimenting with different strategies for the provision of services. A particular effort is being made to site programmes in a manner that makes them accessible to the children of poor working mothers. Many ICDS centres are attached to or associated with primary schools. The government intends to expand the coverage of ICDS activities considerably in the years ahead as an integral part of its EFA strategy.

In **Indonesia**, the government recognized early on that universal provision of pre-school facilities would not be feasible for some time in a country as vast as Indonesia. A different strategy was, therefore, adopted. Through a programme known as **Bina Keluarga**, poor mothers are provided with knowledge and skills to enable them to provide stimulation to the young child, from birth to three years. The programme is distinctive in a number of ways. First, it is focused upon the first years of life, not the years immediately before entry into school. Secondly, it invests in empowering mothers to monitor child growth and development, not in setting up facilities. Thirdly, it is implemented through women's groups and 'belongs' to the community rather than being viewed as a government programme. Indeed, the programme has been transformed into a national movement for the well-being of children.

In **Mexico**, access to pre-school education is a constitutional right. The **Programme for Educational Modernization** attaches great importance to initial education, which is seen as an essentials means for developing the talents of Mexican children. The aim of the programme is to contribute to the balanced education and harmonious development of children from birth until the age of four years. Responsibility for the programme rests not only with teachers and specialists, but also - and especially - with parents and other adults who exercise a formative influence upon children. To promote the programme's goals, materials have been produced to guide parents in how they can promote the health and development of their children. In 1992-1993, Mexico also launched a new pre-school programme that prepares children for entry into primary school. This programme aims at developing the independence and personal identity of children, encouraging their sensitivity to nature, providing opportunities for socialization through teamwork and co-operation with other children and adults, and promoting creativity through language, thought and corporal expression.

In **Bangladesh**, **Nigeria** and **Pakistan**, government involvement in pre-school education is limited. In all three countries, the operation of programmes for pre-school children is in the hands of private institutions

or, in certain cases, NGOs. The role of the government is limited to setting standards and inspecting institutions to make sure these are observed. Pakistan has plans to launch an experimental intersectoral programme for pre-school children. In all these countries, it is recognized that, given the many competing demands on limited resources, large-scale development of institutionalized early childhood care and education programmes will not be possible in the present decade. The governments of the three countries, however, will seek to make existing programmes in health, nutrition and development more responsive to the needs of young children. Long-term plans in all countries call for the development of early childhood care programmes for disadvantaged children.

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Conclusions: As the above summaries demonstrate, the nine countries differ quite sharply in both the priority accorded to ECCE and the extent and nature of the programmes and coverage provided. All countries recognize that learning begins at birth and that the first years of life are a critical stage of development. They differ in the means with which and ways in which they are responding to the challenge of ECCE. The common aim of all programmes can be seen as that of providing quality services to disadvantaged children at a cost that the countries can afford. In this respect, Indonesia's efforts offer an interesting approach that other countries might profit from examining closely. Both ***Indonesia*** and ***Mexico*** - and certainly other countries as well - make the education and training of parents an integral part of their approach to ECCE. This is, yet, another demonstration that EFA must be conceived as a whole, not as an assortment of parts and pieces serving various age-groups. As emphasized earlier, education is an interactive process that takes place not only in institutions, but throughout society.

VIII. Summing up

Nothing is more fundamental or essential to the progress of individuals and societies than the development of human competence and skills through education and training. It was this realization that gave birth to the EFA movement and continues to be its motive force. The World Conference on Education for All was the consequence, not the cause of this realization, but Jomtien served to transform awareness of the need for education into a worldwide movement to ensure its provision, reinforcing national action with international co-operation.

In the nine high-population countries, the first results of the EFA movement are now apparent. Its success is founded upon the conviction that people are the principal means for development and their welfare its primary purpose. Education is, indeed, essential to the efficient operation of modern economies and societies. As already noted, it is also critically important in promoting responsible attitudes toward family-size and family welfare. But the purpose of education is not only to promote productivity and prosperity, but also to advance peace, freedom, justice, equality and mutual respect. EFA is, thus, not only a powerful and appealing vision in itself, it is part of - and **essential to** - a wider vision of humanity's future and fate: of a world in which progress will vanquish poverty, in which peace will prevail over strife, in which women and men will live in freedom, dignity, respect and equality, and in which the triumph of common purpose and good sense will preserve the environment of the earth for future generations. It is important to keep this vision in mind - as remote as it may often seem - because it has practical implications. It implies, for example, that EFA must be promoted not only through educational action, but also by creating opportunities, removing barriers and promoting justice and equality.

The **Framework for Action to Meet Basic Learning Needs** adopted by the World Conference on Education for All concluded with this affirmation:

> *'There will never be a better time to renew commitment to the inevitable and long-term effort to meet the basic learning needs of all children, youth and adults. This effort will require a much greater and wiser investment of resources in basic education and training than ever before, but benefits will begin accruing immediately and will extend well into the future - where the global challenges of today will be met, in good measure, by the world community's commitment and perseverance in attaining its goal of education for all'.*

Today, nearly four years on, this effort is well underway and its first fruits are full of promise.

Bangladesh

1.	Estimated population in 1993:	122,210,000	
2.	Annual population growth rate (1980-93):	2.5%	
3.	Surface area of country in sq. kms:	143,998	
4.	Population density (inhabitants per sq. km):	849	
5.	Population age 0 to 5 in 1980 and 1993:	41%	32%
6.	Population age 6 to 14 in 1980 and 1993:	52%	40%
7.	Population living in urban areas in 1993:	16%	
8.	GNP per capita in US dollars in 1990:	$200	
9.	Average annual growth of GNP, 1980-90:	1.0%	
10.	Daily newspapers, copies per 1,000 inhabitants in 1980 and 1990:	3	6
11.	Comsuption of printing and writing paper, Kgs per 1,000 inhabitants in 1980 and 1990:	510	745
12.	Radio receivers per 1,000 inhabitants in 1980 and 1990:	17	43
13.	Television receivers per 1,000 inhabitants in 1980 and 1990:	1	5
14.	Duration of primary education:	5 years	
15.	Length of school year in days and hours at primary level:	...	...
16.	Pupil-teacher ratio at primary level in 1980 and 1990:	54	63
17.	Percentage of female teachers at primary level in 1980 and 1990:	8%	19%
18.	Gross enrolment ratio in secondary education, both sexes in 1980 and 1990:	15%	19%
19.	Gross enrolment ratio in secondary education, females only in 1980 and 1990:	6%	12%
20.	Number of students in higher education per 100,000 inhabitants in 1980 and 1990:	272	382

Source: **World Education Report, 1993** (UNESCO)

Brazil

1.	Estimated population in 1993:	156,578,000
2.	Annual population growth rate (1980-93):	2.0%
3.	Surface area of country in sq. kms:	8,511,965
4.	Population density (inhabitants per sq. km):	18
5.	Population age 0 to 5 in 1980 and 1993:	28% 21%
6.	Population age 6 to 14 in 1980 and 1993:	37% 32%
7.	Population living in urban areas in 1993:	75%
8.	GNP per capita in US dollars in 1990:	$2,680
9.	Average annual growth of GNP, 1980-90:	.06%
10.	Daily newspapers, copies per 1,000 inhabitants in 1980 and 1990:	45 54
11.	Comsuption of printing and writing paper, Kgs per 1,000 inhabitants in 1980 and 1990:	8,860 9,012
12.	Radio receivers per 1,000 inhabitants in 1980 and 1990:	313 382
13.	Television receivers per 1,000 inhabitants in 1980 and 1990:	124 215
14.	Duration of primary education:	8 years
15.	Length of school year in days and hours at primary level:	... ...
16.	Pupil-teacher ratio at primary level in 1980 and 1990:	26 23
17.	Percentage of female teachers at primary level in 1980 and 1990:	85% ...
18.	Gross enrolment ratio in secondary education, both sexes in 1980 and 1990:	34% 39%
19.	Gross enrolment ratio in secondary education, females only in 1980 and 1990:	36% ...
20.	Number of students in higher education per 100,000 inhabitants in 1980 and 1990:	1,162 1,074

Source: **World Education Report, 1993** (UNESCO)

China

1.	Estimated population in 1993:	1,205,181,000
2.	Annual population growth rate (1980-93):	1.5%
3.	Surface area of country in sq. kms:	9,596,961
4.	Population density (inhabitants per sq. km):	126
5.	Population age 0 to 5 in 1980 and 1993:	20% 18%
6.	Population age 6 to 14 in 1980 and 1993:	39% 23%
7.	Population living in urban areas in 1993:	26%
8.	GNP per capita in US dollars in 1990:	$370
9.	Average annual growth of GNP, 1980-90:	7.9%
10.	Daily newspapers, copies per 1,000 inhabitants in 1980 and 1990:	35 42
11.	Comsuption of printing and writing paper, Kgs per 1,000 inhabitants in 1980 and 1990:	2,368 4,166
12.	Radio receivers per 1,000 inhabitants in 1980 and 1990:	55 182
13.	Television receivers per 1,000 inhabitants in 1980 and 1990:	4 30
14.	Duration of primary education:	5 years
15.	Length of school year in days and hours at primary level:	234 858
16.	Pupil-teacher ratio at primary level in 1980 and 1990:	27 22
17.	Percentage of female teachers at primary level in 1980 and 1990:	37% 43%
18.	Gross enrolment ratio in secondary education, both sexes in 1980 and 1990:	46% 48%
19.	Gross enrolment ratio in secondary education, females only in 1980 and 1990:	37% 42%
20.	Number of students in higher education per 100,000 inhabitants in 1980 and 1990:	117 186

Source: **World Education Report, 1993** (UNESCO)

Egypt

1.	Estimated population in 1993:	56,060,000	
2.	Annual population growth rate (1980-93):	2.5%	
3.	Surface area of country in sq. kms:	1,001,449	
4.	Population density (inhabitants per sq. km):	56	
5.	Population age 0 to 5 in 1980 and 1993:	32%	29%
6.	Population age 6 to 14 in 1980 and 1993:	38%	39%
7.	Population living in urban areas in 1993:	44%	
8.	GNP per capita in US dollars in 1990:	$600	
9.	Average annual growth of GNP, 1980-90:	2.1%	
10.	Daily newspapers, copies per 1,000 inhabitants in 1980 and 1990:	42	57
11.	Comsuption of printing and writing paper, Kgs per 1,000 inhabitants in 1980 and 1990:	4,565	4,618
12.	Radio receivers per 1,000 inhabitants in 1980 and 1990:	147	324
13.	Television receivers per 1,000 inhabitants in 1980 and 1990:	34	109
14.	Duration of primary education:	5 years	
15.	Length of school year in days and hours at primary level:	228	1,140
16.	Pupil-teacher ratio at primary level in 1980 and 1990:	34	24
17.	Percentage of female teachers at primary level in 1980 and 1990:	49%	52%
18.	Gross enrolment ratio in secondary education, both sexes in 1980 and 1990:	54%	81%
19.	Gross enrolment ratio in secondary education, females only in 1980 and 1990:	41%	73%
20.	Number of students in higher education per 100,000 inhabitants in 1980 and 1990:	1,751	1,698

Source: **World Education Report, 1993** (UNESCO)

India

1.	Estimated population in 1993:	896,567,000	
2.	Annual population growth rate (1980-93):	2.0%	
3.	Surface area of country in sq. kms:	3,287,590	
4.	Population density (inhabitants per sq. km):	273	
5.	Population age 0 to 5 in 1980 and 1993:	29%	25%
6.	Population age 6 to 14 in 1980 and 1993:	38%	34%
7.	Population living in urban areas in 1993:	26%	
8.	GNP per capita in US dollars in 1990:	$350	
9.	Average annual growth of GNP, 1980-90:	3.2%	
10.	Daily newspapers, copies per 1,000 inhabitants in 1980 and 1990:	21	32
11.	Comsuption of printing and writing paper, Kgs per 1,000 inhabitants in 1980 and 1990:	1,212	1,861
12.	Radio receivers per 1,000 inhabitants in 1980 and 1990:	38	79
13.	Television receivers per 1,000 inhabitants in 1980 and 1990:	4	32
14.	Duration of primary education:	5 years	
15.	Length of school year in days and hours at primary level:	...	...
16.	Pupil-teacher ratio at primary level in 1980 and 1990:	45	47
17.	Percentage of female teachers at primary level in 1980 and 1990:	27%	28%
18.	Gross enrolment ratio in secondary education, both sexes in 1980 and 1990:	30%	44%
19.	Gross enrolment ratio in secondary education, females only in 1980 and 1990:	20%	32%
20.	Number of students in higher education per 100,000 inhabitants in 1980 and 1990:	515	...

Source: **World Education Report, 1993** (UNESCO)

Indonesia

1.	Estimated population in 1993:	194,617,000	
2.	Annual population growth rate (1980-93):	2.0%	
3.	Surface area of country in sq. kms:	1,904,569	
4.	Population density (inhabitants per sq. km):	102	
5.	Population age 0 to 5 in 1980 and 1993:	32%	23%
6.	Population age 6 to 14 in 1980 and 1993:	42%	32%
7.	Population living in urban areas in 1993:	29%	
8.	GNP per capita in US dollars in 1990:	$560	
9.	Average annual growth of GNP, 1980-90:	4.1%	
10.	Daily newspapers, copies per 1,000 inhabitants in 1980 and 1990:	15	28
11.	Comsuption of printing and writing paper, Kgs per 1,000 inhabitants in 1980 and 1990:	1,422	3,323
12.	Radio receivers per 1,000 inhabitants in 1980 and 1990:	99	147
13.	Television receivers per 1,000 inhabitants in 1980 and 1990:	20	60
14.	Duration of primary education:	6 years	
15.	Length of school year in days and hours at primary level:	...	...
16.	Pupil-teacher ratio at primary level in 1980 and 1990:	23	23
17.	Percentage of female teachers at primary level in 1980 and 1990:	33%	50%
18.	Gross enrolment ratio in secondary education, both sexes in 1980 and 1990:	29%	45%
19.	Gross enrolment ratio in secondary education, females only in 1980 and 1990:	23%	41%
20.	Number of students in higher education per 100,000 inhabitants in 1980 and 1990:	367	838

Source: **World Education Report, 1993** (UNESCO)

Mexico

1.	Estimated population in 1993:	89,998,000
2.	Annual population growth rate (1980-93):	2.3%
3.	Surface area of country in sq. kms:	1,972,547
4.	Population density (inhabitants per sq. km):	46
5.	Population age 0 to 5 in 1980 and 1993:	36% 26%
6.	Population age 6 to 14 in 1980 and 1993:	50% 36%
7.	Population living in urban areas in 1993:	73%
8.	GNP per capita in US dollars in 1990:	$2,490
9.	Average annual growth of GNP, 1980-90:	-0.9%
10.	Daily newspapers, copies per 1,000 inhabitants in 1980 and 1990:	124 133
11.	Comsuption of printing and writing paper, Kgs per 1,000 inhabitants in 1980 and 1990:	12,190 12,037
12.	Radio receivers per 1,000 inhabitants in 1980 and 1990:	134 254
13.	Television receivers per 1,000 inhabitants in 1980 and 1990:	57 146
14.	Duration of primary education:	6 years
15.	Length of school year in days and hours at primary level:	195 780
16.	Pupil-teacher ratio at primary level in 1980 and 1990:	39 31
17.	Percentage of female teachers at primary level in 1980 and 1990:	... ...
18.	Gross enrolment ratio in secondary education, both sexes in 1980 and 1990:	48% 55%
19.	Gross enrolment ratio in secondary education, females only in 1980 and 1990:	46% 56%
20.	Number of students in higher education per 100,000 inhabitants in 1980 and 1990:	1,387 1,552

Source: **World Education Report, 1993** (UNESCO)

Nigeria

1.	Estimated population in 1993:	119,328,000	
2.	Annual population growth rate (1980-93):	3.3%	
3.	Surface area of country in sq. kms:	923,768	
4.	Population density (inhabitants per sq. km):	129	
5.	Population age 0 to 5 in 1980 and 1993:	44%	44%
6.	Population age 6 to 14 in 1980 and 1993:	47%	50%
7.	Population living in urban areas in 1993:	35%	
8.	GNP per capita in US dollars in 1990:	$270	
9.	Average annual growth of GNP, 1980-90:	-3.0%	
10.	Daily newspapers, copies per 1,000 inhabitants in 1980 and 1990:	14	16
11.	Comsuption of printing and writing paper, Kgs per 1,000 inhabitants in 1980 and 1990:	949	539
12.	Radio receivers per 1,000 inhabitants in 1980 and 1990:	89	172
13.	Television receivers per 1,000 inhabitants in 1980 and 1990:	7	32
14.	Duration of primary education:	6 years	
15.	Length of school year in days and hours at primary level:	234	1,326
16.	Pupil-teacher ratio at primary level in 1980 and 1990:	37	39
17.	Percentage of female teachers at primary level in 1980 and 1990:	33%	43%
18.	Gross enrolment ratio in secondary education, both sexes in 1980 and 1990:	19%	20%
19.	Gross enrolment ratio in secondary education, females only in 1980 and 1990:	13%	17%
20.	Number of students in higher education per 100,000 inhabitants in 1980 and 1990:	191	320

Source: **World Education Report, 1993** (UNESCO)

Pakistan

1.	Estimated population in 1993:	128,057,000	
2.	Annual population growth rate (1980-93):	3.2%	
3.	Surface area of country in sq. kms:	803,943	
4.	Population density (inhabitants per sq. km):	161	
5.	Population age 0 to 5 in 1980 and 1993:	38%	38%
6.	Population age 6 to 14 in 1980 and 1993:	46%	44%
7.	Population living in urban areas in 1993:	32%	
8.	GNP per capita in US dollars in 1990:	$380	
9.	Average annual growth of GNP, 1980-90:	2.9%	
10.	Daily newspapers, copies per 1,000 inhabitants in 1980 and 1990:	31	15
11.	Comsuption of printing and writing paper, Kgs per 1,000 inhabitants in 1980 and 1990:	988	1,297
12.	Radio receivers per 1,000 inhabitants in 1980 and 1990:	64	90
13.	Television receivers per 1,000 inhabitants in 1980 and 1990:	11	18
14.	Duration of primary education:	5 years	
15.	Length of school year in days and hours at primary level:	174	754
16.	Pupil-teacher ratio at primary level in 1980 and 1990:	37	43
17.	Percentage of female teachers at primary level in 1980 and 1990:	32%	33%
18.	Gross enrolment ratio in secondary education, both sexes in 1980 and 1990:	14%	21%
19.	Gross enrolment ratio in secondary education, females only in 1980 and 1990:	8%	13%
20.	Number of students in higher education per 100,000 inhabitants in 1980 and 1990:	182	266

Source: **World Education Report, 1993** (UNESCO)